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ABSTRACT

This dissertation describes the educational system of Transkei, South Africa. Chapter One describes the purpose of the study and examines the method of investigation. The purpose of the research was to provide guidelines for future planning. Methods used in the investigation include personal observation, interviews, and the study of primary and secondary sources. Chapter Two describes the geography, population, economy, government, and history of Transkei. It also discusses the origin and development of education in Transkei. Education began with traditional informal education. The main purpose was to transmit the cultural heritage from one generation to the next in order to bring about the harmonious integration of the individual with the group or tribe. This chapter then examines missionary education, the start of secularisation, government involvement, and ethnic differentiation and counter reaction. Chapter Three describes the educational system as it is today. The legal, economic, demographic, and linguistic factors in the formation of this system are examined. Recommendations and core suggestions are made in Chapters Four and Five. The problems in Transkei are such that a complete revision of the present educational system as a whole is essential. Day care centers should be provided and teachers should be trained for preschool education. Compulsory free education should be introduced for all children of primary school age. Junior high and secondary schools should be separated from primary schools and the curriculum should be more than a series of school subjects. Vocational and technical education should be expanded. (Author/RM)

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THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM OF TRANSKEI

A SYSTEM DESCRIPTION AND NEEDS ASSESSMENT

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RESEARCH UNIT FOR EDUCATION SYSTEM PLANNING
HEAD: PROF D VERMAAK
BLOEMFONTEIN
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PREFACE

The Research Unit for Education System Planning (RUEP) of the University of the Orange Free State is undertaking an extensive research programme on the educational systems of several developing countries in Southern Africa. The ultimate goal of this research programme is to provide guidelines for the future planning of these educational systems.

However, no future planning of education can be done before a thorough investigation of the historical development and present situation of an educational system has been done. Special attention should be paid to the various factors playing a determining role as well as the main problem areas. Comprehensive studies of this nature for the developing states in South Africa are virtually non-existent.

For these reasons this study by Mr J N du Preez forms a most important part of the research programme of RUEP. Mr du Preez undertook this study for his masters degree in Education.

We trust that this report will provide a useful basis for the future development of education in Transkei.

D. Vermaak

PROF D VERMAAK
HEAD: RESEARCH UNIT FOR EDUCATION SYSTEM PLANNING

APRIL 1980

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 PROBLEM DELIMINATION AND MOTIVATION

The current educational system of Transkei is the result of a variety of factors and influences. The initiative for structuring both contents and form was taken by people, Governments and other institutions from outside Transkei, as was also the case in most former colonies in Africa (see Hanson, 1972, pp. 12-22; Balogh, 1962, p. 8; Ross, 1967, pp. 4-5; Ngubentombi, 1977, p. 162). For a hundred and fifty years Western systems, learning matter and teaching methods were implemented in education in Transkei, with little or no adaptation to local circumstances and without taking account of the unique nature, traditions and socio-economic needs of the Transkeian nation (Jones, 1970, p. 49; Ngubentombi, 1977, pp. 150-162; Ross, 1967, pp. 4-7).

People and instances from outside Transkei who took an interest in the education did not always aim at the educational development of the Transkeian people, but they saw education as a means of attaining other objectives such as religious, economic or political objectives (Ashley, 1974, p. 199).

Since the publication of the Eiselen Report in 1951 and the establishment of a Government Department for Bantu Education in 1954, positive attempts have been made to adapt the education according to the history, culture and socio-economic needs of the various Black population groups in the country. Although these attempts were pedagogically justified and in accordance with developments in the rest of Africa, they were not devoid of political motives (Stone, 1974, pp. 132-135; Ross, 1967, pp. 16-21; Jones, 1970, pp. 52-69, 85-88). These steps were regarded with suspicion

by a large part of the Black population and were interpreted as the inevitable evolution of the policy of separate development of the Nationalist Government. According to this viewpoint Blacks would be withheld from complete participation in the development of the Republic of South Africa by their inferior education (Horrell, 1964, pp. 23, 163-166; Transkei Legislative Assembly, 1965, pp. 89-93). Possibly this single educational system which was intended for the various ethnic groups and for the various homelands was not particularly suitable for Transkei with its own specific social, cultural and economic circumstances, because the inhabitants themselves did not take part in the development of the educational system with which they were provided.

After obtaining self-government in 1963, Transkei took several steps to move away from the educational policy for Blacks of the Republic of South Africa, for example by the abolition of school boards (Ruperti, 1974, p. 63), by the use of English as medium of instruction from Standard three onwards and by using Transkeian syllabi for the primary school (Transkei Department of Education, 1966b, pp. 1-231). This trend was continued after independence had been obtained, inter alia by deciding to use the syllabi of the Cape Education Department* in secondary schools from 1979 as an interim measure until the Transkei Department of Education has compiled its own syllabi and also by establishing the Transkei Examination Board in 1978 (Transkei Department of Education, 1979, pp. 5,7).

Apart from the above-mentioned qualitative aspects of education in Transkei, there are also quantitative aspects which influenced the Transkei educational system in the past and are still influencing it. Pressure was put on the Government to supply education to nearly one million pupils while

*One of the five Education Departments for Whites in the Republic of South Africa.

also coping with problems such as limited funds, a lack of teaching staff and poor facilities (Transkei Department of Commerce, Industry and Tourism, n.d., pp. 13-14). The Department of Education was therefore forced to make use of temporary measures which had an unwholesome influence on the education.

In the light of the above-mentioned factors it is possible that an educational system developed in Transkei which correlates poorly with the Transkeian community. If this is the case, it can firstly be expected that development in other areas, for example social and economic development, will be impeded, seeing that the educational system is correlatively interrelated with almost all the other social structures* and the educational system co-ordinates education with the total development of the country and the nation (Stone, 1974, p. 138; Poignant, 1967, pp. 47-48). Secondly it is to be expected that such a system cannot accomplish the well-balanced development of the child towards duty-conscious and responsible adulthood (Stone, 1974, p. 90).

The national goals of the Transkeian people, namely the development of human resources and the economic development of the country will not be attained if the educational system does not function in harmony with the community (Transkei Department of Education, 1975, pp. 1-3; Matanzima, 1979; Benbo, 1975, p. 3). In order to assess if this needed harmony exists, it is necessary first of all to describe and analyse the present educational system.

Apart from this consideration it is also important that the educational system of every nation or sub-group should be examined more closely from time to time, seeing that an educational system displays a continuous pro-

*Social structures such as state, church and school come into separate being in the development process of a cultural community.

gress, because it is correlatively interwoven with the development of civilization which never remains static, but changes constantly (Stone, 1974, p. 133). It is necessary that the complete picture of any individual educational system should be formed before it is changed to adapt to the development of the civilization concerned. Only then will it be possible to plan the educational system in a balanced, and educationally justifiable manner (Stone, 1974, p. 55).

1.2 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Studies which have been undertaken in the past in connection with the Transkeian educational system, investigated only certain aspects of the system, for example the teaching of Afrikaans and English and the use of the mother-tongue as medium of instruction (Cingo Commission, 1962); the development of educational policy in Transkei (Ngubentombi, 1977); the high wastage and dropout rates in Transkeian schools and the possibility of a system of selection and guidance for admission to the senior secondary school (K-N-N Commission, 1973). A survey was also done in 1971 on the role of education in supplying manpower for economic development (Charton, 1972).

The purpose of this study is:

- to give a short exposition of the historical development of education and the educational system in Transkei;
- to make an analysis of the natural and cultural circumstances which influence the structure of the educational system of Transkei;
- to describe and analyse the present position of education and training

in Transkei;

- to indicate the present and future educational and training needs in Transkei and to formulate directives which can serve as a foundation for future educational system planning which is educationally justifiable.

1.3 FIELD OF STUDY

The area which this study covers is deliminated on the one hand by the fact that the educational system, as a universal structure, is a pedagogical and interwoven structure and on the other hand by the fact that the educational system of a particular country (for example Transkei) attains an individual structure under the influence of its unique natural and cultural circumstances and ground motive.*

Therefore natural factors like geographical, demographical and physical factors will be studied to the extent that they have an influence on the educational system. For the same purpose cultural factors like the historical, linguistic, judicial and economic factors will be studied.

An investigation into the interweaving of the educational system with other social structures, for example the State, parents and local governing bodies (as it is manifested in organised bodies like the Education Department and school committees) also falls within the range of this study. The school, being primarily an educational institution, fills the central position in this interwoven structure. The most important part of this study will therefore be devoted to the school structure.

A complete picture of an educational system can only be formed when it is brought into relation with the fundamental ground motive of a nation. The

*Ground motive is the most basic driving power behind all thought and action of an individual or a community.

ground motive will however not receive attention in this study.

The entire educational system of one specific area, namely Transkei, is described and analysed in this study. There will be no comparisons with other systems. As such this study can be regarded as an integrated area study.

1.4 METHOD OF INVESTIGATION

In this investigation the following methods will be used:

- personal observation by means of visits to educational institutions and organizations;
- interviews and discussions with people who are familiar with the educational system of Transkei;
- the study of primary sources consisting of statistics, official publications and circulars of the Transkei Department of Education and official publications of the Transkei Department of Internal Affairs and the Transkei Department of Commerce, Industry and Tourism;
- the study of secondary sources covering the historical development of education in Transkei and the planning and development of educational systems;
- the study of forecasts of pupil figures and estimation of the supply of teachers and physical facilities supplied by the Research Unit for Education System Planning (RUEP) at the University of the O.F.S.;
- the study of secondary sources supplying information about the natural and cultural circumstances which influence the structure of the Transkeian educational system.

CHAPTER 2

BACKGROUND STUDY AND HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION IN TRANSKEI

2.1 GEOGRAPHY

The Republic of Transkei covers an area of 41 620 square kilometres. It is situated on the south-east coast of Southern Africa and is bounded by the Cape Province, Natal and Lesotho. The country can be divided into three geographical areas, namely the coastal plain which is a thermal zone with an average rainfall of 750 to 1 400 millimetres per year, the interior plateau, and the Drakensberg highlands where the rainfall is between 500 and 1 250 millimetres per year. The whole region is hilly or mountainous and is traversed by several perennial rivers.

2.2 POPULATION

According to the 1970 census the population of Transkei numbered 1 900 000 of whom 95 per cent were Xhosas, four per cent South Sothos and one per cent Zulus. The main characteristic of the population is the high rate of increase which is more or less 2,8 per cent per year (Transkei Department of Commerce, Industry and Tourism, n.d., p.i). Forty-three per cent of the population are younger than 15 years. Another important characteristic of the population is the male : female ratio of 70 : 100, because a large number of males (about 60 per cent) are temporarily working in the Republic of South Africa (Transkei Department of Commerce, Industry and Tourism, n.d., pp. ii, iii). More or less 80 per cent of the economically active people are working in the agricultural sector. A very small portion of the population lives in towns. According to the 1970 census less than 3 per cent of the Transkei population were urbanised.

2.3 ECONOMY

The per capita Gross Domestic Product of Transkei is exceptionally low. In 1973 it was R55,00 and the largest contribution was made by the agricultural sector. The per capita Gross National Income for the same year was substantially higher, namely R169,00. The reason for the considerable difference is that 70 per cent of the Gross National Income was earned by migrant workers in the Republic of South Africa. The strategy for economic development is to concentrate on supplying job opportunities for about 26 000 workers who enter the labour market annually. Attempts are being made to modernize and commercialize the agricultural sector and to promote industrial development.

The maintenance sector forms an important part of the economic structure. During 1973/74 the contribution of the private sector to the Gross Domestic Product was only 27 per cent, while the contributions of the maintenance sector and the public sector were 42 per cent and 31 per cent respectively. It is estimated that only one third of the population will be able to make a livelihood from agriculture towards the end of this century and that there will be a serious shortage of job opportunities for the growing labour force in Transkei. "A substantial number of young men from Transkei will still be looking for and finding work in the mining industry and to a lesser extent in some other sectors of the R.S.A. economy by the end of the century" (Transkei Department of Commerce, Industry and Tourism, n.d., p. v).

Due to the lack of private initiative and know-how as well as the shortage of funds, the Government is compelled to play a more active role in the economic development of the country than is the case in more developed Western countries. The role of the Government is manifested directly by the provi-

sion of the infrastructure as well as indirectly by the financing and control of the Transkei Development Corporation. The function of this corporation is to aid the economic development of Transkei by initiating and financing business enterprises, by supplementing the physical infrastructure and by supplying specialised advice and information to businessmen.

2.4 GOVERNMENT

Since October 1976 the Republic of Transkei has been a sovereign, independent state. The legislative power is in the hands of the House of Assembly which consists of 75 elected members, 70 chiefs and five paramount chiefs. The executive power is held by an Executive Council, consisting of the Prime Minister and the Ministers heading the different State Departments. The judicial power is vested in the Supreme Court which consists of a chief justice and other justices appointed by the State President.

The survival of tribal authorities and regional authorities which handle matters of a more local nature, is sanctioned in Section 63 of the Constitution of Transkei. At the moment there are nine regional authorities in Transkei. A regional authority is composed of a chairman and a number of members chosen from the ranks of chiefs, headmen and counsellors of tribal authorities.

2.5 HISTORICAL REVIEW

The Xhosa-speaking people is one of the sub-groups of the Nguni ethnic group which moved southward from the Victoria Lake about one thousand years ago. In the sixteenth century those people entered the Transkei and at that time they comprised the following tribes: Xhosa Tembu, Mpondo, Mpondomise, Xesibe and Bomvana. As a result of the annihilation wars of the

Zulus at the beginning of the nineteenth century, four other Nguni tribes, also fleeing before the Zulus, likewise settled in the Transkei. They were the Hlangwini, Bhaca, Gingo and Wushe. Since 1858 many South Sothos came to the Transkei. They consisted mainly of four tribes of which two, the Hlakwana and the Kwena originally came from Lesotho. The two other tribes, the Tlokwa and the Rolong, originally came from the Eastern Free State. Most of the Sothos settled in the western and north-western parts of the Transkei.

In their eastward expansion, the White trek-farmers came into contact with the Xhosas more or less in 1770 in the vicinity of the Fish River. Both the trekkers and the Xhosas were cattle farmers and disputes about grazing rights and cattle thefts eventually caused the First Frontier War in 1781. The Fish River was stipulated as the eastern border and until 1834 a policy of segregation was applied. This policy was followed by the treaty system according to which Bantu chiefs - being sovereign and independent - were to become allies of the British Government and with the advice of White agents they had to maintain peace. The treaty system failed, however, and was abolished after the Seventh Frontier War in 1847. The area between the Kei and the Keiskamma Rivers was proclaimed British dominion under a White governing system in 1848. This was the beginning of a policy of westernization in which education was to play an important part (Van Jaarsveld, 1971, pp. 95-105). In 1857 a national disaster overtook the Xhosa people. Under the direction of the witch-doctors and chiefs the Xhosas destroyed their food supplies, believing that on a particular day the wind would blow all White people into the sea and grain and cattle would rise out of the soil. This disaster considerably diminished the power of the chiefs and promoted the process of civilization and westernization (Mc Kerron,

1934, p. 162). After the Ninth Frontier War in 1877 the British Government attempted to end the strife and unrest on the border permanently by incorporating the whole eastern border area up to the Natal border with the Cape Colony by means of a series of annexations which took place from 1879 to 1894. The incorporated area was governed by an efficient system of Bantu administration, with the Cape governor as head of state (Van Jaarsveld, 1971, pp. 140, 150).

Since 1894 a Western management and government system has been introduced. The traditional system of administration was however not acknowledged in the new system. District councils with a White magistrate as chairman and chosen as well as nominated members were established. The district councils were represented on the General Council or "Bunga" which had limited powers in the whole area of Transkei. In 1956 the governing system was changed to give recognition to the traditional management system of the Xhosa people. On 30 May 1963 the Transkei was granted partial self-government. District boards were abolished in 1965 and the General Council was replaced by a legislative assembly consisting of chiefs, paramount chiefs and chosen members. At the request of the Transkeian Government, the country became an independent state on 26 October 1976.

Since 1950 the political development of Transkei took place in accordance with the policy of separate development of the Nationalist Government of the Republic of South Africa. This policy also changed the development of education in Transkei during the fifties.

2.6 ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION IN TRANSKEI

2.6.1 Traditional informal education

The traditional education of the Xhosa people has been covered fully in

several other studies (see Duminy, 1967; Katiya, 1973; Ngubentombi, 1977; Raum, 1967). For the purpose of this study only a few main points will be discussed.

The education of the child until the toddler stage was handled by the family and particularly by the mother and grandmother. Subsequently other members of the family and also other tribe members took part in the child's education. "Indigenous education was based on and directed by sound pedagogical principles which were in accordance with the modern educational views that education, as an instrument of cultural transmission, must be closely related to the cultural background of the community and, to do this effectively, the influence of the home which provides the important linkage with the social and cultural systems of previous generations must be taken into account" (Ngubentombi, 1977, pp. 46-47). In this way the foundation was provided for the integration of the individual into the particular community of which he forms part.

The contents of the learning matter was determined by the educational goals which was to develop the child into an independent, responsible member of the tribe, obedient to the customs, rules of conduct and the authority of the tribe (Katiya, 1973, p. 12). In this way the individual learns to live in harmony with the community.

The traditional educational method is illustrated by the following: "Teaching was individual in nature and it adapted itself to the child's individual peculiarity. The didactical performance was not systematic but was derived from individual events so that teaching remained concrete practical and relevant" (Katiya, 1973, p. 12).

Schools did not exist as separate institutions and an educational system was completely unknown. However, the education of the child was not entirely informal. A type of formal education did take place at the initiation schools where young boys and girls who had reached a particular age came together to receive instruction of a particular kind by a teacher. Initiation education always took place at a particular time or season of the year. This training aimed at completing the education of the child in order that he could take his place in the community as an independent adult. The discipline in these schools was severe and the traditions and cultural values of the tribe constituted the most important part of the curriculum. Those persons who were able to guide the young boys or girls towards adulthood, not only by means of instruction, but also by means of example, were used as teachers (Ngubentombi, 1977, pp. 51-52).

The main purpose of traditional education was to transmit the cultural heritage from one generation to the next in order to bring about the harmonious integration of the individual with the group or tribe. Within the framework of ancestor worship the Xhosas believed that the influence of the deceased forefathers continued even after their death. "To inaugurate new ways was a sure method of estranging and alienating the ancestors who were custodians of tradition and a strong force for conservatism" (Ngubentombi, 1977, p. 54). The results of this severe conservatism and strong attachment to tradition were the following:

- There was little space left for innovation in the community in general and particularly in education;
- The members of the tribe had to give up their own individuality for the preservation of traditions;

- The development of single social structures like an educational system was not possible (see Stone, 1974, p. 155). A stimulus from outside was needed to let this development take place. This stimulus was supplied by the contact with the more developed White civilization and particularly the missionaries with their gospel message in which education would play an important role.

2.6.2 The beginning of missionary education, 1799 - 1856

At the end of the eighteenth century the trek-farmers were scattered over a large area. There were few, and in many cases no educational facilities for the children of the White cattle farmers and there was also a lack of enough ministers to take care of the religious work (Pells, 1954, pp. 17-18; Nel, 1942, p. 70). The clashes which resulted from the first encounters with the Xhosas led to segregation. The Whites excluded the Xhosas from their educational and cultural institutions. As a result of this there was little transfer of civilization to the Xhosa people during the first two or three decades after their first contact with Whites (Lekhela, 1972, p. 13). The missionary societies, however, did have significant influence on the Xhosas. They started with Western education in Transkei in 1823 and dominated the course and development of this education for more than a century (Loram, 1917, p. 46).

The first school for Xhosas was established in 1799 by Dr. J.T. van der Kemp and J. Edmonds of the London Missionary Society. The school was situated among the people of Gaika (Ngqika) near the Tyumie River in the vicinity of the present King William's Town. Gaika regarded Van der Kemp with suspicion and initially he was reluctant to grant him permission for settlement. The attempts of Van der Kemp to christianise and educate the Xhosas failed

and consequently he concentrated on a small group of Hottentots who lived in the neighbourhood (Du Plessis, 1965, p. 122). In December 1800 he terminated his work there and went to work among the Hottentots at Bethelsdorp.

A second attempt to evangelise the Xhosas of Gaika was made in 1816 by the London Missionary Society. A missionary station and a school were erected at the Cat River near the present Fort Beaufort (Horrell, 1963, p. 2). Williams, who was appointed as missionary, was a hardworking and dedicated man but he did not have the necessary training. After two years of fruitless work the functioning of this missionary station was terminated with the death of Williams in 1818 (Du Plessis, 1965, pp. 184, 247).

In order to ensure friendly relations with Gaika, Lord Charles Somerset appointed John Brownlee of the Glasgow Mission to establish a missionary station among the Xhosas. He was joined in 1821 by William Ritchie Thompson. Both missionaries were paid by the Colonial Government. A few months later two more missionaries, John Bennie and John Ross, joined Brownlee. These four missionaries founded missionary stations at Chumie and Incehra (later Lovedale) near the present Alice. At each of these missionary stations schools were established and in 1825 there were 70 pupils at Chumie and 30 at Lovedale (Horrell, 1963, p. 2). The latter school was changed in 1841 to the Lovedale Institute where evangelists and teachers were to be trained. Students had to be at least 12 years of age and their elementary schooling was required to have been completed (Horrell, 1963, p. 3). The work done at the missionary stations and in the schools was interrupted by the Sixth Frontier War (1834-1835) in which the Lovedale Missionary Station was completely demolished. The missionary work was subsequently also disrupted by the Seventh Frontier War (1846) and the Eighth Frontier War

(1850-1852). The Colonial Government offered financial assistance for the reconstruction of the missionary stations and for the continuation of the educational and missionary work done among the Xhosas, in accordance with a policy of peace through civilization (Horrell, 1963, p. 4).

One of the missionaries at Lovedale, John Ross, had brought a printing-press with him from Scotland. It was used to print the first school-books in Xhosa, which were of great value for the missionary work and education among the Xhosas (Mc Kerron, 1934, p. 160).

The above-mentioned development of education among the Xhosas took place to the west of the Kei River. The Wesleyan Missionary Society undertook the pioneering work in mission and education to the east of the Kei River, in the present Transkei. Between 1823 and 1830 a series of six missionary stations was established under the competent leadership of William Shaw. Of these stations two were in the Ciskei and four in Transkei. Missionary stations were established in 1826 at Butterworth under W.J. Shrewsbury, in 1829 at Morley under W. Shepstone, and at Clarkebury under R. Harry and Buntingville under W.B. Boyce, both in 1830 (Sadler, 1967, pp. 81-85).

Initially small schools were founded at the missionary stations. In due course they expanded to make a permanent contribution to the development of education in Transkei. Even today schools or training schools still exist at all four of these missionary stations, and also at most missionary stations which were founded later. At the request of the chief of the Bhaca tribe the Shawbury missionary station was established in 1842 (Hammond-Tooke, 1955, pp. 25-26), and at the request of the chief of the Pondos a missionary station was founded in 1845 at Palmerton (Horrell, 1963, p. 6). At both missionary stations schools were established. By 1850 the Methodist

Church had 25 missionary stations in the Eastern Cape and Transkei.

Important pioneering work was done by the Wesleyan missionary W.B. Boyce, when he wrote the first Xhosa grammar book which was printed in 1833. He analysed the structure of the language and he highlighted the key role of the noun in the syntax of the Xhosa language (Du Plessis, 1965, p. 175). This break-through paved the way for the development of Xhosa as a written language and for the translation of the Bible and other books into Xhosa. In 1859 J.W. Appleyard, another Wesleyan missionary, completed the translation of the Bible into Xhosa.

The outbreak of the Sixth Frontier War in 1835 and the Seventh Frontier War in 1846 compelled the missionaries to stop their work temporarily. Some of the missionary stations were burnt down and the missionaries had to flee to safety. After the wars they rebuilt the schools, churches and homes, however, and carried on with their work (Conradie, 1967, pp. 26-27; Horrell, 1963, p. 6). When the missionary stations were devastated during the Eighth Frontier War (1850-1852) for the third time, the missionaries became discouraged. After the war many of the Xhosa chiefs were openly hostile to the missionaries and this antagonism spread among their tribe members (Ashley, 1974, pp. 202-203). When a missionary, W.J. Thompson, was murdered near Clarkebury in 1856, the Wesleyan missionaries earnestly considered abandoning their work in the Transkei and continuing with it somewhere else (Du Plessis, 1965, pp. 295-296). The National Suicide of the Xhosas in 1857, however, changed the course of events.

The first fifty years of formal Western education in Transkei were totally in the hands of the missionaries. Their main purpose was the evangelisation of the Xhosas and all educational objectives and methods were subordinate

to this (Pells, 1954, p. 130; Ross, 1967, p. 4). The traditional way of living of the Xhosas was regarded as wrong, sinful and contrary to the evangelisation task. The missionaries regarded and used the school as an instrument to destroy the traditional culture of the Xhosa (Loram, 1917, pp. 94, 95; Ashley, 1974, pp. 200-201). The result was that there was no connection between the education within the family and the education of the school; on the contrary - school education was at variance with home education. The largest part of the population initially rejected missionary education because it disrupted their traditional way of living (Ashley, 1974, pp. 200-201). A measure of success was however attained among the Mfengu (Fingo) and the Gqunukhwebe tribes, who were less committed to their tribes and less traditionbound (Ashley, 1974). The Mfengu were less traditionbound because they had had to flee from the north of Transkei before the advancing Zulu force. For a considerable period of time they had lived with other tribes in the south as their underlings. (Amamfengu literally means people looking for homes). During the Sixth Frontier War a group of Mfengu requested the Colonial Government to protect them against exploitation by the Xhosas (Benbo, 1975, p. 17). The Gqunukhwebe on their part were less traditionbound because of their contact with the Hottentots which took place over a long period of time, and also the more recent contact with the Whites of the Cape Colony (Ashley, 1974, p. 200).

The missionaries educated the child for the restricted way of life at the missionary station, without keeping in mind the demands of the real outside world. While traditional education established harmony between the individual and the group, missionary education disrupted this harmonious relationship. The contact made with a more developed civilisation, the disintegration of the extremely conservative culture and the christianisation

of some members of the community formed the foundation for the development of separate social structures and the more complete development of the individual. The seed was sown for a national educational system within which the accelerated and complete development of the child could be realised. More than a century afterwards there was still neither certainty nor unanimity among the Xhosas about the direction in which this development would take place.

2.6.3 Expansion of missionary education and the start of secularisation, 1854-1910

The arrival of Sir George Grey as governor of the Cape in 1854 inaugurated a new policy in connection with the education of Blacks. Up to this stage education in the Transkei and the education of Blacks in the rest of South Africa were completely in the hands of the missionary societies (Lekhela, 1972, p. 14). Nothing practical had been done by the Government to promote education among the Black population of the country (Behr, 1963, p. 434; Ngubentombi, 1977, p. 45). Grey implemented a policy of civilization regarding the Blacks on the eastern frontier in order to end the wars and unrest in a peaceful way. In this policy education played an important role (Horrell, 1963, p. 7). In 1854 Grey stated his intentions as follows: "The plan I propose to pursue ... is to gain an influence over all these tribes included between the present north-eastern boundary of this colony and Natal; by employing them upon public works which will tend to open their country; by establishing institutions for the education of their children and the relief of their sick; by introducing amongst them institutions of a civil character suited to their present condition; and by these and by other like means to win them to civilization and christianity"

(Rose and Tunmer, 1975, p. 204). The second Superintendent-General of Education in the Cape Colony scrupulously followed Grey's policy and in 1891 at the conclusion of his term of office which lasted 33 years he said the following: "The schools are hostages of peace - to lift the Aborigines gradually as circumstances permit to the platform of civilized and industrial life is the great object of the educational vote" (Rose and Tunmer, 1975, p. 211-212). This policy of civilization and westernization did promote the development of education in Transkei, but it also resulted in the gradual destruction of the traditional culture of the Xhosa. This destruction of their culture and the disintegration of tribes were accelerated by the Frontier War in 1850-53, the National Suicide of the Xhosas in 1857, the annexation of Transkei at the end of the nineteenth century and the introduction of a Western governing system after annexation. The result was "the serious disruption of tribal society. Numbers of individuals became detached from the tribal social matrices and ready to enter into new relationships" (Ashley, 1974, p. 203).

The first direct result of Grey's policy was the decision in 1855 of the Cape Colonial Government (self-governing from 1854) to subsidize the missionary schools. The purpose was to supply industrial training and to train the Xhosas as interpreters, evangelists and teachers (Rose and Tunmer, 1975, p. 206). Since January 1855 until the end of 1862 £49 000 was spent on education for Blacks in the Cape Colony (Behr and Macmillan, 1971, p. 378). Educational facilities and pupil numbers increased accordingly, but there was a lack of supervision of and guidance to the teachers at missionary schools (Behr, 1963, p. 434).

In the Education Act no. 13 of 1865 the missionary schools for Blacks were officially integrated into the educational system of the Cape Colony. The

Government was to subsidize the salaries of teachers, but the missionary societies had to provide buildings and equipment (Behr, 1963, p. 434). These schools were subjected to departmental inspection and had to follow prescribed syllabi. Supplementary subsidies were provided for trade training (Loram, 1917, pp. 49-50). By means of this Act the Colonial Government at the Cape extended its control over education and accepted partial responsibility for it. This also started the secularisation of education and many missionaries were dissatisfied with the situation (Pells, 1954, pp. 132-134).

This period is characterized by the increase of educational facilities which in many cases took place at the instigation of the Transkeian population. By 1875 there were 75 schools in Transkei with more or less 4 000 pupils (Pells, 1954, pp. 132-134), while in 1904 there were already 850 schools with an average attendance of 35 000 pupils (Theal, 1964, p. 198). Shortly after unification the average attendance figure was 60 000, which represented 26 per cent of the children of school age. At this stage Transkei was the only Black area in South Africa which had a well-developed system of local self-government who amongst other things also levied taxes for education (Loram, 1917, pp. 70, 246-247).

Schools in Transkei only provided primary education. Very few pupils advanced further than Standard four. In 1910 60 per cent of the pupils were in the substandards (first two years of school time), 15 per cent in Standard one and ten per cent in Standard two (Loram, 1917, pp. 70, 246-247). The only facilities for secondary education were in the Ciskei at Lovedale, but the results of the final examination conducted at this institution were extremely poor. Between 1904 and 1910 only five candidates passed the matriculation examination. The main reason which the authorities of the Lovedale

school gave for this poor performance, was the fact that the pupils' knowledge of English was too poor for them to understand the subjects and textbooks properly (Loram, 1917, p. 130). According to Loram the failure of secondary education can be attributed to "the imposition of a hard-and-fast curriculum, designed for European children, upon the children of another race differing in environment, institutions and future occupations" (Loram, 1917, p. 297).

Progress was also made in the field of teacher training and by 1910 there were seven aided training schools with 500 pupil-teachers. They followed a three year course subsequent to Standard six (Loram, 1917, p. 134). This notwithstanding, the lack of enough well-trained teachers was one of the most important arresting factors in the development of education in Transkei during this period (Pells, 1954, pp. 132-133). Many of the students at the training schools were not interested in a teaching career, but simply wanted to undergo some degree of higher education, for which there were no facilities in Transkei (Loram, 1917, p. 133).

The progress in the field of education in Pondoland until its annexation in 1894 was much slower than in the rest of Transkei. The missionary societies and the local inhabitants had to bear the full financial burden until 1894. An attempt to introduce the payment of school fees of two shillings per pupil annually in Pondoland, met with grave dissatisfaction from the parents and this was possibly responsible for the subsequent decrease of the number of pupils (Conradie, 1967, p. 115). Following on the annexation of Pondoland the school attendance gradually increased (Conradie, 1967, pp. 191-197), but after ten years the Pondos were still "the most backward of all the tribes between the river Kei and Natal (because of) their comparative disregard of the education of their children in the mis-

sion schools" (Theal, 1964, p. 198).

Several attempts were made to promote trade training, but they were not successful (see Behr, 1963, p. 436; Horrell, 1963, pp. 7-8; Pells, 1954, p. 135). There were several reasons for the lack of progress in this field (Loram, 1917, pp. 155-161). There were few job opportunities for Black artisans. Trade training is an expensive undertaking and there was also a lack of teachers in this field. Trade training for Blacks was opposed by White artisans for fear that they would lose their jobs. It was also opposed by some missionaries who regarded their work as superior to manual work. The Blacks themselves saw education as a means of escaping from manual labour. In 1903 the General Council of the Transkei acting independently of the Cape Education Department, voted part of its funds for trade training of Xhosa boys. A school was erected at Butterworth, which provided training in carpentry, building and blacksmithing (Behr, 1963, p. 436). In 1904 this Council established an agricultural school at Tsolo on its own initiative and with its own funds (Behr and Macmillan, 1971, p. 380).

As early as 1880 the need for a university for Blacks emerged (Behr, 1963, p. 446). In 1905 the Native Affairs Commission recommended the establishment of an institution for higher education and teacher training and during the same year a meeting was attended by 160 Blacks from all over South Africa to discuss the matter (Loram, 1917, p. 298). Two years later the Transkeian General Council voted £10 000 for the foundation of a university, and in addition the United Free Church of Scotland granted £5 000 as well as a stand at Fort Hare for this purpose. A college was opened at Fort Hare in 1916 and in 1923 it attained university status. Students were to write the examinations of the University of South Africa (Horrell, 1963, pp. 29-30).

In the second half of the nineteenth century the Methodist Mission extended their activities in the field of education considerably. During this period of time quite a number of other churches and missionary societies started missionary and educational activities in Transkei, for example the Moravian and the Scottish Missionary Societies, and the Anglican, Presbyterian and Roman Catholic churches. The expansion of missionary education was possible at this stage because the population was more receptive to a Western oriented education and also because the Colonial Government subsidized missionary education and because the country was safer after the annexation than it had been earlier. The establishment of many missionary schools was due to ecclesiastical rivalry rather than educational zeal (Behr, 1963, p. 436).

Only a few of the large number of schools which were founded during this period through the diligence of the missionaries, and sometimes at the instigation of the inhabitants, can be mentioned in this study. In 1861 the Methodist Mission established missionary stations at Witteberg and Bensonvale. After a few years teacher training and industrial training were started at the latter station. By 1906 there were 142 boarders and 280 day-scholars (Horrell, 1963, p. 6). At the request of the Pondo chief, Faku, a missionary station was established at Emfundisweni in 1862, where teacher training was provided in addition to primary education (Conradie, 1967, pp. 79, 92). Under the competent direction of the missionary Peter Hargreaves, trade training and teacher training were started at Clarkebury in 1876. The local population (the Tembus) contributed £1 000 for the erection of the buildings which cost £1 500 (Conradie, 1967, p. 79, 92). The enthusiasm and financial assistance of the local population were common to many parts of the Transkei during this time.

From 1855 onwards the Anglican Church established a number of missionary stations in Transkei. All the missionary stations were to be provided with a missionary, a teacher, an agriculturist and an artisan. Initially only primary education was provided at all the missionary stations, but subsequently teacher training and trade training were also offered. The following were the most important Anglican missionary stations:

St. Marks at Cofimvaba established in 1855
All Saints at Engcobo established in 1860
Holy Cross at Lusikisiki established in 1873
St. Cuthberts at Tsolo established in 1882 (Du Plessis, 1965, p. 354; Horrell, 1963, pp. 8-9).

The most important contribution of the Presbyterian Mission was the founding of Blythswood in 1877. This institution was established at the request of and with the financial aid of the local inhabitants, the Fingos. At a mass meeting they contributed £4 500 (Horrell, 1963, p. 9; Du Plessis, 1965, p. 362). Both primary education and teacher training were provided here and much later also secondary education. Missionary stations which also provided primary education were established in 1868 near Butterworth and Idutywa.

While the Transkeian people rejected the Western formal education during the first fifty years, they not only accepted it during the next fifty years, but even insisted upon and supported it, as was indicated above (Ashley, 1974, p. 210).

Supplementary to the evangelisation goal pursued by the missionaries, the Colonial Government also added another goal to education, namely civilizing and westernizing. Both these goals had the result that the school

on the one hand was detached from the community which it had to serve and on the other hand the school pursued goals contrary to the nature of the community which it had to serve (Ngubentombi, 1977, pp. 60, 64). The syllabi which were used, were for all practical purposes the same as the syllabi of the Whites and they had no connection with the environment, culture or history of the Transkeian people (see Loram, 1917, pp. 95-97; Pells, 1954, p. 135; Behr and Macmillan, 1971, p. 380; Katiya, 1973, p. 26). The method of instruction, just like the syllabi, emphasized mechanical intellectual education and memorisation, without taking into account the child's own nature, cultural background or home education (Loram, 1917, pp. 95-96, 106; Ngubentombi, 1977, p. 64). This state of affairs in addition to the fact that the medium of instruction was mainly English, gave rise to rote learning (Loram, 1917, p. 98; Horrell, 1963, p. 14). Mother-tongue education was neglected and the Xhosa language was not sufficiently developed to serve as medium of instruction in the higher standards during the twentieth century.

Attempts to adjust the syllabi and teaching methods to the national character were regarded with suspicion and was seen as an attempt to have the Transkei people play an inferior role in society (Ashley, 1974, pp. 208-209).

An inevitable result was that the schools played a most important part in demolishing the traditional way of living of the Xhosa. In fact, this was just what both the Church and the State had in mind. A breach was formed between formal education and home education and between formal education and the community. The closing of this breach was to be the main task of the educational planners over the next fifty years. This maladjustment between education (including the developing educational system) and the community was aggravated by the integration of the Transkeian population

into the South African economy, especially after the discovery of gold and diamonds. "Thus the ninteenth century closed with strong African demand for the adequate provision of a Western education which would equip Afri= cans to compete in a South Africa offering increasing economic and social opportunities" (Ashley, 1974, p. 210).

An analysis of the origin and development of an individual educational system in Transkei during the nineteenth century gives evidence of the following:

- At the beginning of the nineteenth century the inhabitants of Transkei existed in the form of undifferentiated communities or tribes. Tradi= tionally the educational task was dealt with by all the adults. Educa= tional institutions did not yet exist as separate social structures and no educational system as a separate social structure existed.

- The stimulus for the differentiation of separate social structures among which falls particularly the development of the educational system, was the contact with the Whites, being a more developed community.

- The development in the field of education took place much faster than development in most other fields. Education not only preceded the other social structures in development and differentiation, but it also played an important role in the development of the other social structures.

- Two clear stages are noticeable in the origin and development of an in= dividual educational system in Transkei during this period of time. The first stage was the establishment of educational institutions (mainly primary schools and to a lesser extent institutions for the training of teachers). The second stage was the start of planning, financing and

control of education by the State (Colonial Government). A co-ordinated, individual, national educational system for Transkei was, however, totally unknown, but the first steps were taken on the road towards individualisation.

- The educational system did not originate from the Xhosas' own urge towards civilization or from their traditional ground motive, and therefore it was fundamentally alien to their traditional culture.

- In this formation of culture (educational system development) the principles for the development of civilization functioned in an unbalanced way. The principle of cultural integration was over-emphasised, while the principles of culture differentiation and continuity were ignored. Education was for example detached from the past of the Xhosa and his existing culture, there was no connection between schools and home education, and the instructional contents and teaching methods of the schools for Whites in the Cape Colony were applied in Transkei without any adaptations. These factors had a disruptive influence on the communities in Transkei and education was not co-ordinated with the community.

- In the first fifty years education was subordinated to the Church and in the following fifty years it was also subordinated to (and even put into service of) the State. Parents and other social structures were denied any say in educational matters. This interference with the internal sovereignty of the school had the result that education could not function and develop freely according to pedagogical principles.

2.6.4 Expansion, adaptation and increased Government involvement, 1910-1950

The Constitution of the Union of South Africa stipulated that the affairs of Black people would be controlled by a ministerial State Department, while education for Blacks would be the responsibility of the Provincial Councils. Consequently there was a virtually complete division between the education for Blacks and general Black policy (Union of South Africa, 1927, p. 947). Education in Transkei was therefore controlled and financed by the Cape Provincial Administration which laid down the policy, goals and development trends by means of legislation (ordinances) and its executive powers. Control was exercised by means of the prescribed syllabi (which were the same as those for Whites until 1922), school inspections, examinations, promotion and certification of pupils and teachers, as well as regulations concerning the conditions of service of teachers and equipment for schools (Loram, 1917, pp. 80-89; Rose and Tunmer, 1975, p. 230). The local control of schools was in the hands of the Church or the missionary societies that had to provide and maintain buildings and equipment and were also responsible for the appointment of teachers, subject to the approval of the Cape Education Department, the payment of the teachers' salaries on behalf of the Education Department and the submission of reports (Rose and Tunmer, 1975, p. 230; Horrell, 1963, p. 36).

Until 1921 the Transkeian General Territorial Council supplemented the subsidies of the Provincial Council with sums which varied from 50 per cent to 100 per cent of the contribution made by the Provincial Council. The Transkeian General Territorial Council, however, had no say in the control and administration of education or the determination of educational policy, but it did have full control over the agricultural schools at Tsolo

and Teko (Union of South Africa, 1927, p. 940). Although the Council had no legal control over education, educational matters were often discussed during Council sessions and recommendations in this connection were made to the educational authorities in Cape Town.

Even at the beginning of this period there was a tendency among the Transkeian people to secularise the education, to free it from church domination and to obtain more say in educational matters (Loram, 1917, p. 81; Horrell, 1963, p. 37; Union of South Africa, 1927, p. 947). This was initiated on local level by the establishment of school committees (Loram, 1917, p. 80). During the negotiations for the founding of an own university (Fort Hare) some of the Blacks concerned strongly objected to the proposed missionary control of the university.

The Cape chosen committee of 1908 for the education of Blacks recommended that the language, home, cultural background and future position of the Black child be taken into account when education for Blacks was planned, without lowering the standard of education. The commitee also recommended that the mother-tongue be used as medium of instruction up to Standard four (Horrell, 1963, pp. 14-15). No steps were taken in reaction to these recommendations, but subsequent adaptations are connected with the committee's recommendations. The Superintendent-General of Education in the Cape Province, Dr. Viljoen, aimed at adapting the syllabi of schools for Blacks to the way of life of the Blacks and in 1919 he appointed a commission of inquiry for this purpose. In addition to recommendations for changes in the syllabi of primary schools, the commission also recommended that the State should have more control over education, while the control by the missionary societies should be diminished. Another

recommendation of this commission was that the parents should have more say in education. A Chief Inspector for Bantu Education was appointed in the person of W.G. Bennie. In 1922 a primary school course for Blacks was introduced which differed from the curriculum for Whites. It made provision for the mother-tongue as medium of instruction up to Standard two. During the same year the course for the training of Black teachers was also changed. In future it would consist of a two year course subsequent to Standard eight and a three year course after Standard six (Behr, 1963, p. 446; see Pells, 1954, p. 137). At secondary schools for Blacks the same courses were offered as in schools for Whites with the difference that pupils could also present Xhosa as a subject.

Another important development during this period of time took place regarding financing, which initially was solely the responsibility of the Provincial Councils. In Transvaal taxes were levied from Blacks in 1921 for this purpose, but it was prohibited the next year by the Central Government* when it was also determined that the expenditure of the various provinces on Black education may in future not be less than the expenditure in 1921 (Rose and Tunmer, 1975, p. 225; Horrell, 1963, p. 27). The expansion of education in Transkei was not arrested by the prohibition of taxes, seeing that the fund of the Provincial Administrations was supplemented by taxes for Blacks which were introduced in 1925 by the Central Government. Initially only one fifth of these taxes was used for education, but this contribution was raised repeatedly, until the full sum was used for education in 1943. In 1945 the financial control of education for Blacks was assigned to the Minister of Education, Arts and Science. From that date onwards the money which would be assigned to the Provincial Councils for Black education, would come from the Consolidated Revenue Fund of the Central Government

*The four Provincial Councils were subordinate to the Central Government of the Republic of South Africa regarding financial affairs.

(Rose and Tunmer, 1975, p. 242). The Cape Provincial Administration, however, remained the legislative power and controlling body of education in Transkei (Horrell, 1963, p. 35). In 1945 a Union Advisory Board on Native Education was established to co-ordinate education for Blacks and to advise the Minister and the Provincial Councils. In practice this Advisory Board, however, had no directive influence (Brazelle, 1978, p. 30).

After 1925 when funds of the Central Government were used for education in Transkei, educational facilities increased rapidly. In 1932 there were already 1 149 schools, 2 302 teachers and 69 000 pupils. Eight years later there were 120 000 pupils in Transkeian schools (Republic of Transkei, 1976, p. 77).

The increasing financing of education in Transkei by the Central Government was accompanied by increasing secularisation of education and increasing control by the Cape Provincial Administration (Pells, 1954, p. 137). The role of the Church in the control of education rapidly decreased in accordance with the wishes of the Transkeian people. Most missionary schools adapted their system of education to the departmental regulations in order to qualify for subsidies (Horrell, 1963, p. 36).

An analysis of the developments on the road to an own educational system during this period reveals the following:

1. The domination of education by the Church which had been a prominent characteristic in the nineteenth century, was ended by the Cape Provincial Administration at the instigation of the Transkeian people.

2. Planning, control, legislation and policy-making were in the hands of an authority outside Transkei (Cape Provincial Council) which mainly handled

the education of Whites. The local government of Transkei, the parents and other social structures or institutions had little or no say in educational matters. On the one hand this had the result that education had to forfeit its sovereignty to the Cape Provincial Council and on the other hand that education was not integrated with the community and with national development.

3. Some progress was made in the field of cultural differentiation of education in Transkei, but further progress in this direction was arrested because of the following factors:

(a) The planning and policy-making was done by another population group which did not have sufficient knowledge of the Transkeian people (see Loram, 1917, pp. 88, 137; Rose and Tunmer, 1975, p. 247).

(b) There was uncertainty regarding the position of the Blacks in the political and socio-economic structure of the Union of South Africa (Ross, 1967, pp. 3-6).

(c) The population of Transkei did not yet form a national unity. The nation was divided into tribes and further divided into two groups - the one group followed the Western way of life, while the other group adhered to the traditional way of life.

(d) Many Transkeians worked in the Union of South Africa and they came to believe that an educational system which differed from the educational system of the Whites, would be inferior and would exclude them from participation in the economy of South Africa.

(e) Political pressure groups that wanted to bring about racial integra-

tion, were established during this period of time. Of these pressure groups the African National Congress and the Pan African Congress were the most important. A separate educational system for Blacks, based upon cultural differences or racial differentiation, would clash directly with their aims of racial integration.

2.6.5 Ethnic differentiation and counter-reaction, 1958-1978

The educational system which was functioning by the middle of the twentieth century shows the following main characteristics: the financing of education was the responsibility of the Department of Education, Arts and Science of the Central Government, while the Cape Provincial Administration was responsible for control, supervision, administration, syllabi, examinations, etc. The goals, method and contents were practically the same as those for Whites and did not make provision for the culture, history and environment of the Transkeian child. Education in Transkei was furthermore not integrated with the socio-economic development of the country, but it was directed more towards the integration of the Transkeian people with the rest of South Africa. The local control of schools was mainly in the hands of the Church and missionary societies without the active participation of the parents or local communities.

This educational system and policy were more or less in accordance with the policy of the Smuts Government, which rejected segregation as a solution for the problem of relations between nations in South Africa (Van Jaarsveld, 1971, p. 253). The majority of Whites feared that the Smuts policy would result in racial integration and in the 1948 election the National Party with its policy of separate development and peaceful co-existence of nations, came into power. To implement this policy the exist-

ing educational policy for Blacks which was headed for racial integration, had to be changed drastically. A commission of inquiry, the Eiselen Commission, was appointed in 1949 to examine the then system of education for Blacks and to make recommendations. The Government in principle accepted the Commission's recommendations and in 1953 the Act on Bantu Education was passed (Ross, 1967, p. 8).

According to this Act from 1954 the control of all education for Blacks would be in the hands of the Section : Bantu Education, which was a sub-department of the Department of Native Affairs. In 1958 Bantu Education became a separate State Department, with its own cabinet Minister. For administrative purposes the country was divided into six regions, more or less on an ethnic basis. One of these regions was Transkei. At the head of the region was a Regional Director, assisted by both White and Black inspectors. The school was regarded as an integral part of the community and it had to provide in the needs of the community (Behr, 1963, p. 478). To implement this point of view provision was made for the establishment of school committees for community schools and school boards for a group of schools in a specific area (Horrell, 1964, pp. 52-59). These bodies had to represent parents, local authorities and other local interests in order to give the Black community more opportunity to accept responsibility for finances, administration, maintenance and expansion of their educational facilities. The subsidies to government-assisted missionary schools were gradually decreased and in 1958 suspended (Horrell, 1964, p. 27). The result was that the local missionary management of schools was replaced by local community management in the form of school committees and school boards. The missionary societies could not continue their educational task without Government subsidies and most aided missionary schools became

community schools.

The medium of instruction in primary schools would be the mother-tongue and subsequently one or both the official languages (Afrikaans and English). Syllabi for primary schools were compiled in such a way that they corresponded to the child's background and environment (Horrell, 1964, p. 64). These syllabi were introduced in primary schools from 1956 onwards and in secondary schools up to Form three (Junior Certificate) from 1958. The syllabi for the Senior Certificate were the same as those of Whites. The primary school phase would stretch over eight years and the secondary phase would last five years - in total therefore thirteen years, in comparison to twelve years in schools for Whites.

The first important goal was to supply basic literacy to the masses (Behr, 1963, p. 479). Facilities for primary education were extended and by 1963 there were 267 000 pupils in 1 600 primary schools in Transkei. In the same year there were 8 000 pupils in secondary schools and they constituted 3 per cent of the total school population.

As mentioned above the development of an individual educational system in Transkei was hampered among other things because of the fact that principles of culture differentiation and continuity remained in the background. The Act on Bantu Education of 1953 envisaged a balanced functioning of the mentioned principles for cultural development. In order to attain this, attempts were made to adapt syllabi to the cultural background and environment of the child and the needs of the community (Ross, 1967, pp. 9-10). The mother-tongue would serve as medium of instruction for the first eight years. Local communities were granted a say in educational matters. The Transkei formed an administrative unity under the authority of a Regional

Director.

Although this new Bantu Educational Policy was supported by generally accepted educational principles and similar policy directions that were followed in the greater part of Africa during the sixties, it evoked widespread counter-reaction in South Africa and specifically in Transkei (Horrell, 1964, pp. 7-9, 23; Wilson, 1978, pp. 78-80). This counter-reaction has remained with the result that after self-government in 1963 as well as after independence in 1976 various attempts were made to return to an educational system which is the same as that of the Whites in the Republic of South Africa.

The main reasons for the above counter-reaction and even rejection of the Bantu Educational Policy after 1953, are the following: as was the case in the rest of the Republic of South Africa the Transkeian population believed that an educational system which differed from the system of the Whites was inferior. A large portion of the nation had been detribalised and were following a Western way of life. Education was seen as a means of escaping from the backward and poverty-stricken rural existence and finding a livelihood in White cities.

However, the new Bantu Educational Policy of the Nationalist Government aimed at exactly the opposite: the Transkeian child was to be educated as a member of the Transkeian community and was to realise his economic, political and cultural aspirations in Transkei since there was no opportunity for this in the White community.

In the years following the Second World War many Blacks migrated to the cities where employment was readily available as a result of the rapid industrial development. This increased economic integration went hand in hand with political integration (for in-

stance Black representation in Parliament and the Senate of the Union of South Africa since 1936 and the Smuts Government's rejection of the segregation policy as a solution to the racial problem) and the emergence of Black nationalism. The Second World War set the process of equalisation between the two races in movement. Throughout the whole world and especially in Africa which was under colonial rule, there was reaction against racial domination.

In South Africa the new Bantu Educational Policy was seen by some Blacks as an instrument which would put an end to the process of racial integration and the equalisation which had been developing since the beginning of the twentieth century. Furthermore, according the these critics, this policy was aimed at ensuring White supremacy and the subordination of the Blacks. These Blacks were not alone in their resistance but were instigated by communist agitators and liberal White sympathisers who wished to take political advantage of the situation.

The counter-reaction in the Transkei took shape after the territory obtained self-government in 1963 and therefore had more say in the control of education. The local Regional Office was replaced by the Transkeian Department of Education with a Secretary of Education as chief executive officer who would be responsible to the Minister of Education. During 1965 all school boards were abolished. Their administrative functions were taken over by the Education Department. Likewise all community schools became Government schools (Transkei Department of Education, 1965, p. 1). School boards had been unpopular from the start. It is possible that this form of community participation in education is a democratic practice which is alien to Black tradition, or that societal relationships have not yet reached the necessary degree of development which is needed for such representation (Ruperti, 1974, p. 63). Many teachers were also dissatisfied with the school boards because

they had extensive authority even though many board members were illiterate. Any member of the community could lodge a complaint against a teacher to the school boards (Horrell, 1964, p. 57). The school boards also had the right to dismiss teachers. According to the Transkeian Education Act of 1966 (Act No. 9 of 1966) the State, under the guidance and control of the Minister of Education, is responsible for all supervision, administration and control of education in the territory. The Minister was granted extensive authority regarding all educational matters from pre-primary up to adult education. The active participation of the citizens of Transkei was retained in that regional authorities and school committees would act in an advisory capacity. This Act revokes the Act on Bantu Education of 1953 in its entirety as well as all amendments to Bantu Education Acts. In 1966 the Transkei introduced its own syllabi for primary schools. English would be the medium of instruction from Standard three onwards (Transkei Department of Education, 1966, p. 2). English would be taught as a subject from the first school year and Afrikaans from the second school year (Transkei Department of Education, 1966 b, pp. 3-4). In the secondary schools and teacher training schools the syllabi of the Department of Bantu Education were followed since this department conducted the Junior and Senior Certificate, as well as the teacher training examinations. After independence an attempt was made to break away completely and finally from the Department of Education and Training (previously Bantu Education). It was decided to follow the syllabi of the Cape Education Department in secondary schools in Transkei (Transkei Department of Education, Circular No. 50/1978). Standards five and eight will follow these syllabi and in 1980 also Standards six and nine. By 1981 all secondary pupils will be following the Cape syllabi. English will be taught as a first language. No Afrikaans will be taught

in the primary school, but Practical Afrikaans may be offered as an optional subject from Standard five onwards and Afrikaans as second language may be offered as an optional subject from Standard nine onwards. The Transkeian Education Department will conduct the external examinations for Standard seven and eight and later also the external Standard ten examination. An Examination Board was established for this purpose in 1978 (Transkei Department of Education, 1979, p. 8). It is also envisaged that all teacher training should be brought under the control of the University of Transkei which was founded as an autonomous university in 1977 (Transkei Department of Education, 1979, p. 23).

During the period 1950-1978 development of an individual, national educational system for Transkei took definite (although incomplete) shape. The tempo of the formation of an individual educational system was accelerated by the application of the Bantu Education Act, the attainment of self-government in 1963 and of independence in 1976. The Bantu Educational Policy after 1953 placed the emphasis on the principle of differentiation for cultural development, but after self-government and independence cultural integration, influenced by the economic and political ideals of the Transkeian population, dominated the further development of an individual educational system. Whereas the Bantu Educational Policy did not keep pace with the rate of cultural development in Transkei, the educational system which was developed by the Transkeian Government after 1963, did not take into consideration the local national character, economy, language and other local circumstances. This is clearly illustrated by the high rate of school leavers in the primary school and the high rate of failures in the secondary school. The present educational system is discussed in more detail in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 3

THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM OF TRANSKEI - A DESCRIPTION

3.1 DETERMINING FACTORS*

In order to obtain a clear and understandable picture of the educational system of Transkei, it is necessary to examine the factors which determine, or rather determine together with other phenomena, the structure of the system.

The historical development of education in Transkei and the influence of the cultural principles of integration and continuity were discussed in the previous chapter. In order to give a complete picture of the educational system of Transkei, it is important to examine the influence of ground motives on the formation of the educational system (Stone, 1974, p. 153). However, that falls outside the field of this study.

In this chapter an outline of the legal, economic, demographic and linguistic factors as determining factors will be given. The existence and influence of other factors such as spatial, physical, logical etc. which determine the nature and scope of an educational system, are not disregarded by their omission under this heading; reference to these factors appears throughout the rest of the text.

3.1.1 Judicial factors

The educational system is intervowen with various social structures, instances and individuals. It is the duty of the State to bring about balance and harmony between the interests of the various bodies since the educational system is interwoven with the State also. This harmonious integration of the various social structures, instances and individuals connected

*Factors which shape an educational system.

with education is regulated through legislation, so that clarity can be obtained about the role, power, rights and duties of each, and so that order in the system is ensured. Futhermore, without undermining the autonomy of the school and the family, it is the right and duty of the State to further the interests of education for the sake of civilization in general. This can and should also be stipulated by legislation.

When Transkei was granted self-government in 1963 the Transkei Constitution (Act 48 of 1963) transferred control and financing of Black education in Transkei to the Transkei Legislative Assembly (Horrell, 1964, p. 2). Subject to the approval of the State President of the Republic of South Africa, the Legislative Assembly could now issue its own Education Acts and also repeal or amend the Education Acts of the Republic (Ruperti, 1974, p. 45). Since then two Education Acts have been approved, i.e. the Transkei Education Act No. 2 of 1964 and the Transkei Education Act No. 9 of 1966. Act No. 2 makes provision for the abolition of school boards and the transfer of community schools to the Government of Transkei. The role of regional authorities in the control, planning and administration was also explained in the Education Act. These authorities would be responsible for the planning and provision of buildings and equipment, they had to examine complaints, make recommendations in connection with teacher appointments and advise the Education Department about the distribution of schools.

The provisions of the 1964 Education Act - with the exception of the planning and provision of buildings and equipment by regional authorities - were essentially retained in the Education Act of 1966. This Act revoked the 1964 Education Act as well as the Bantu Education Act of 1953 of the Republic of South Africa. Up to the present this comprehensive Education Act forms the public legal basis for education in Transkei. Through this

Act the State accepts its task of ensuring order in the educational system. The roles, rights and duties of instances and individuals concerned with education are clearly described in this Act in order to bring about a balanced integration of all individuals and social structures concerned with education.

Extensive power is accorded to the Minister of Education to control, administrate and plan educational matters to the advantage of the nation.

According to Ruperti (1974, p. 45) the action of the principle of continuity can clearly be seen in these two Education Acts because no revolutionary changes were envisaged and the new system continued on the lines of the old one. An important change that was brought about by the new Acts was that the State extended its functions of control and supervision and that the authority of the local communities was diminished, so that their participation would be largely advisory. Section 2 of the 1966 Education Act determined that the Department of Education, led and controlled by the Minister of Education was to accept complete responsibility for the control and supervision of the administration of education.

This Act made provision for the establishment and closure of schools and courses, transfer, discharge and conditions of service of teachers, the recognition of teacher organisations and the establishment of an advisory council for education and school committees. The duties of regional authorities were also defined. As has been mentioned, extensive power was given to the Minister of Education. Under Section 31 of the Education Act he could issue regulations about the medium of instruction, religious education, courses and admission requirements in Government schools, registration of private schools etc. The Minister also had the right to introduce compul-

sory education. On the strength of this authority the Minister issued extensive regulations in 1971 on the composition and duties of school committees, control of school funds, conditions of service of teachers and the admission and expulsion of pupils and student teachers.

The Constitution of the Republic of Transkei sanctioned the continued existence of the Transkei Education Act of 1966 after independence and revoked the Coloured Persons Education Act of the Republic of South Africa (Act No. 47 of 1963). Other acts of direct importance to education and training were the Transkei Act on Apprentices (Act No. 10 of 1974) which regulated the training of apprentices and the University of Transkei Act (Act No. 23 of 1976) which made provision for the foundation of an autonomous university.

3.1.2 Demographic factors

The demographic factors in a country greatly influence the educational system. Knowledge of these factors is necessary not only in order to obtain a better understanding of the present system, but is especially important in order to determine future needs and to plan realistically for the future.

In 1978 the total Black population of Transkei (including migrant workers) was 2,9 million (Transkei Department of Commerce, Industry and Tourism, n.d., p. i) of which 96 per cent were Xhosas, 3 per cent South Sothos and 1 per cent Zulus. The annual growth rate of the population was 2,8 per cent (Transkei Department of Commerce, Industry and Tourism, n.d., p. i). An important feature of the population was its juvenility - 43 per cent of the population were children younger than 15 years of age (Transkei Department of Commerce, Industry and Tourism, n.d., p. ii). Accordingly the financially

active portion of the population carried a heavy burden to provide educational facilities.

Due to the scarcity of work in Transkei about 50 per cent of the adult males are employed in the Republic of South Africa as migrant workers. The relation of men to women in the age group 15-64 years is therefore 1 : 2,06 (Transkei Department of Commerce, Industry and Tourism, n.d., p. 6). The absence percentage of men with young children is much higher - possibly close to 80 per cent (Transkei Department of Commerce, Industry and Tourism, n.d., p. iii). This situation leads to the disintegration of family life and this is detrimental to discipline and is felt in the schools. Furthermore it has the result that the father is apathetic towards the school.

The population is spread fairly evenly over the country with only 3 per cent urbanized in 1970 (Benbo, 1975, p. 31). The primary and junior secondary schools are also evenly distributed throughout the country. Since a small percentage of the pupils are in the junior secondary schools - only 15 per cent in 1978 (Transkei Department of Education, 1979, p. 13)-there are a large number of particularly small Standard five, six and especially Standard seven classes. The number of pupils per teacher is therefore extremely low (25 in 1978) in the junior secondary classes, whereas it is very high (64 in 1978) in the primary classes (Transkei Department of Education, 1979, p. 13). In 1979 this imbalance forced the Government to put an end to the establishment of more secondary schools and to transfer the Standard seven classes to nearby senior secondary schools where that was possible (Transkei Department of Education, 1979, p. 25). Whereas there are more than 2 000 primary and junior secondary schools which bring educational facilities up to Standard seven within walking distance of practically all pupils, there are only 110 senior secondary schools. Since the population is not concentrated, but

spread over wide areas, it was necessary to provide boarding facilities which brought added financial burdens. The main demographic problem, however, is the rapid increase of the children of school age for whom additional provision must be made. According to estimates the number of children in the age group 5-14 years will increase from 687 000 in 1975 to 792 000 in 1980 (Transkei Department of Commerce, Industry and Tourism, n.d., p. 15).

3.1.3 Economic factors

The economy of a country has a twofold influence on its educational system. On the one hand the educational system must supply in the demand for trained manpower and on the other hand education must be financed from the proceeds of the economy. The economic factor as determining factor of the educational system is currently prominent in Transkei. It is therefore necessary to elucidate the economic features of Transkei.

The following are the most important features of the Transkeian economy:

- The per capita Gross Domestic Product is extremely low. In 1975 it was R98, while the per capita Gross National Income for the same year was R228 (Benso, 1978, pp. 17, 30).

- In 1977 the Transkeian economy could provide employment outside the agricultural sector for only 12 per cent of its male manpower. Half of these people were in the civil service (Transkei Department of Commerce, Industry and Tourism, n.d., p. v).

- In 1977 more than half the male labour force were working as migrant workers in the Republic of South Africa (Benso, 1979, p. 232). This situation is expected to continue up to the end of this century (Transkei, n.d., p. 47).

The vast majority (almost 70 per cent) (Benbo, 1975, p. 35) of the economically active population inside Transkei are employed within the argricultural sector.

Although the agricultural potential is high, the actual production per unit is extremely low, and food must be imported from the Republic of South Africa. Only 10 per cent of the agricultural produce is sold, while 90 per cent is maintenance production (Barclays National Bank, 1978, p. 7). These figures show clearly that the traditional subsistence economy is still mainly practised. "The Transkeian farmer still looks upon agriculture as a way of life and no emphasis is laid on its economic importance ... It is however declared policy of the Department of Argriculture and Forestry that this subsistence form of agriculture be transformed into a more productive activity that will provide adequate food for the population, generate income and create job opportunities" (Barclays National Bank, 1978, p. 7). The reasons for the low production are lack of skills and capital, small production units, tribal ownership system of land and obsolete traditional approach to farming.

Although a free enterprise system is followed in Transkei, the State is obliged to play an active role in the economy because of a lack of capital, entrepreneurship and skills. The Government considers its most important tasks in the field of economy to be the provision of job opportunities of the labour force which increases by 30 000 every year and the production of enough food for the population of the country (Matanzima, 1979).

These features of the Transkeian economy had the following effects on the educational system of the country:

- The low per capita Gross Domestic Product and Gross National Income had a restrictive influence on the growth and development of education. The national budget of Transkei for 1977/78 was R238 million of which R34 million was allocated to education (Transkei, 1978, pp. 1, 26). The current expenditure per pupil in 1977 was R54. The limited funds had the result that there was a shortage of physical facilities, teaching aids and books for pupils which had a restrictive effect on the learning situation (K-N-N Commission, 1973, pp. 64-84). There is also a shortage of boarding facilities for secondary pupils who live far from the schools (see Transkei Department of Education, 1978, p. 15).

  The shortage of teachers in certain subjects especially, such as Mathematics and Science is also partly due to the fact that the Department of Education cannot compete with the private sector regarding salaries.

- The fact that the greater portion of the labour force is dependent on the Republic of South Africa for employment has the result that the manpower needs and job opportunities of the Republic of South Africa have great influence on the determination of the educational policy and the structure of the Transkeian educational system. Since full provision is not made for the specific manpower needs of Transkei, the economic development of the country can thereby be disadvantaged. Among other things it was for fear of isolation from job opportunities in the Republic of South Africa that there was a gradual movement away from the erstwhile system of Bantu Education and that it was decided to follow the syllabi of the Cape Department of Education. This aspect will be discussed in detail in the

next chapter.

Because agriculture forms the basis for the economic development of the country, the Government plans to pay more attention to Agricultural Science as a school subject, amongst other things by establishing two agricultural schools. Agricultural Science is already offered as a subject choice in secondary schools whereas Gardening is taught in primary schools in order to impress upon the child that its welfare depends on the cultivation of the soil. This is no easy task since the pupils associate the agricultural sector with poverty in comparison with the relative prosperity of the other sectors. The progressive young men are not interested in agricultural training since they see no future for themselves in agriculture in the current structure (Maqungo, personal interview, 1978; see Transkei Department of Agriculture and Forestry, 1975, p. 1). The development regarding agriculture is hampered by this since "... only aged male and female labourers (are) available as the young, strong and healthy seek employment in the industrial areas of the Republic" (Transkei Department of Agriculture and Forestry, 1975, p. 10).

3.1.4 Linguistic factors

The vast majority of the population, namely 96 per cent are Xhosa-speaking, while just over 3 per cent speak South Sotho. During the first four years the mother-tongue is used as medium of instruction. In most cases this is Xhosa but there are a few schools especially in the western and north-western parts bordering Lesotho where the mother-tongue is South Sotho. From the fifth year (Standard three) onwards the medium of instruction is English. The reasons for the use of the mother-tongue during the first four years are

to link home education with school education and in order not to make the pupil's first admission to school upsetting. The Xhosa language is not suitable for instruction above a certain level (see Horrell, 1964, pp. 67-68; Cingo Commission, 1962, p. 16). It does not possess the necessary vocabulary and expressiveness nor are there suitable textbooks and subject literature. The Honourable Chief Minister K.D. Matanzima said in this connection in 1964: "When we made this request it was not because we despised our mother-tongue. We made the request simply because our language was undeveloped and had not reached the stage where it could be used in all respects to put across the ideas found in the Western world. We have not the vocabulary and the terminology. We haven't the books" (Transkei Legislative Assembly, 1964, p. 207). By contrast English is a highly developed international language which provides access to any course of studies. Many of the missionary teachers had to use English as the medium of instruction as they couldn't speak Xhosa. This was a reason why the Xhosa language did not develop as a technical language.

During the time that education in Transkei was controlled by the Provincial Administration, English was used as the medium of instruction from Standard three onwards. According to the Government policy of Bantu Education English was only used as the medium of instruction from the first year in the secondary school. Parents and teachers were dissatisfied with this situation. A commission of enquiry was appointed in 1962 to investigate the complaints. The language question was considered so important that "the Commission gained the impression that the medium of instruction was the main interest many teachers, school boards and other persons and organisations had in its work" (Cingo Commission, 1962, p. 15). This made the school language-centred instead of child-centred (Cingo Commission, 1962, p. 16)

and the educational duty of the school was disadvantaged. On sound educational grounds the Commission recommended that the mother-tongue be retained as medium of instruction up to and including Standard four (first six years) and that in Standard five and six a gradual shift towards English (or Afrikaans if this is preferred by teachers and parents) as medium of instruction be made (Cingo Commission, 1962, p. 18). The choice of the medium of instruction was however, not influenced solely by educational principles - political and economic considerations were also present (see Cingo, 1967, pp. 135-137; Horrell, 1963, p. 67) because "the problem of medium of instruction is not just a problem of pedagogics alone, but also of socio-economics and history" (Thembela, 1974, p. 71; see Transkei Department of Education, 1979, pp. 27-28). The Legislative Assembly of Transkei appointed a committee to examine the findings and recommendations of the Cingo Commission. The recommendation of this committee that English be used as medium of instruction from Standard three onwards was accepted by the Legislative Assembly in June 1964 (Transkei Legislative Assembly, 1964, pp. 207-209). According to several circuit inspectors and senior educational planners the inability of the pupils in the primary school to understand English and the incompetence of the teachers in using English as medium of instruction are among the most important problems of the primary schools. In most cases Xhosa is used to supplement English. However, the pupils' textbooks are written in English and are intended for pupils whose home language is English. Tests and examinations are done in English from Standard three onwards. All these factors contribute to the rote memorization of facts by the pupils (Duminy, 1967, pp. 199-200). This can contribute to poor scholastic progress and high dropout figures.

In closing it should be mentioned that no satisfactory solution to the

language problem has yet been found.

3.2 EDUCATIONAL POLICY AND GOALS

The political divisiveness of the country since independence as was to be seen in the elections as well as the economic dependence of the country on the Republic of South Africa, caused the Transkeian Government to hesitate to lay down definite educational policies and goals. In spite of several pleas to the effect that educational matters should be discussed in the Legislative Assembly outside the political arena (Transkei Legislative Assembly, 1964, pp. 89, 207; 1965, pp. 163-165; 1966, p. 163; 1970, p. 120; 1973/74, p. 143) the political and social factors carried the most weight when the educational policy and goals were determined. Whereas the policy of the erstwhile Department of Bantu Education was based on cultural differentiation and separate development, the policy of the Transkeian Government leans toward socio-economic integration with the Republic of South Africa. In 1964 one of the members of the Legislative Assembly made the following remark: "We do not want to be intellectual dwarfs ... we want the same educational system as the Whites of the Cape Province today" (Transkei Legislative Assembly, 1964, p. 89). By educational system, often, as in the case of this quotation, only syllabi and learning content must be understood. In 1965 a chosen committee of the Legislative Assembly recommended that the syllabi of the Cape Education Department should be used in the primary schools of Transkei (Transkei Legislative Assembly, 1965, p. 162) and in 1978 it was decided that the Cape syllabi were to be introduced into the secondary schools as well. These decisions, together with the abolition of school boards and the use of English as medium of instruction indicate clearly that especially after self-government in 1963 and independence in 1976 a policy direction was taken which differs fundamentally from the

educational policy before self-government. This was stated explicitly in the 1979 policy speech made by the Minister of Education (Transkei Department of Education, 1979, p. 5).

The goals of education and the national educational policy are not decreed by Education Acts. Some light is cast on the matter through discussions in the Legislative Assembly and the annual policy speeches of the Minister of Education as well as through certain stipulations of the Education Act of 1966. The Cingo Commission and the K-N-N Commission also give indications of the present goals and those which are desirable. Declarations made on the highest level concerning goals and policy are often not in accordance with the actual practice. The following goals were formulated by the Minister of Education during the past three years (Transkei Department of Education, 1977, 1978, 1979). The goal of education in Transkei is the shaping of a special child - a Transkeian child - who belongs to a specific community and nation - an independent Transkeian nation. Education is the birthright of every person and should be available to every person for the duration of his life. The child should be educated in its totality, with due allowance for individual differences (intellectually, ethically, aesthetically, socially, vocationally, linguistically, etc.) in order to fit the requirements of the present and probably future socio-economic environment in which he will live as an adult Transkeian citizen. These goals will be aimed at with the complete consideration of the existing and future technical, economic and social needs of the country. To summarize it can be said that the objective of education in Transkei is the total individual development of all Transkeian citizens and the total development of the country in every area. It is also mentioned that Transkei will strive to uphold Christian ideals.

In order to reach these praiseworthy goals, the following direction-giving

policy measures were laid down:

1. The control, supervision, administration and financing of all education (with the exception of private education and university education) shall be the responsibility of the Department of Education under the leadership of the Minister of Education (Transkei Government Act No. 9/1966, Sec. 2)

2. The Minister shall determine the educational policy in consultation with the other cabinet Ministers (Transkei Government, 1974, p. 47).

3. Educational planning shall be co-ordinated with the general socio-economic development of the country (Transkei National Assembly, 1977, p. 148).

4. Concerning educational planning, policy, control and administration the Minister shall be assisted by an Advisory Board consisting of experts in the field of education (Transkei Government, Act No. 9/1966, Sec.27).

5. Provision is made for the right of parents and community to act in an advisory capacity through regional and tribal authorities, school committees and parent-teacher associations (Transkei Government, Act No. 9/1966, Sec. 26, 27; see Transkei Department of Education, 1978, pp. 16-17; Transkei National Assembly, 1977, p. 153).

6. For consultative purposes the Minister can recognize teacher organisations (Transkei Government, Act No. 9/1966, Sec. 28).

7. Subsidized education shall be provided. The Minister has the right to establish compulsory education and in consultation with the Minister of Finance also free education (Transkei Government, Act No. 9/1966, Sec. 22-24).

8. Differentiated education shall be provided in order to make provision for individual differences of ability, aptitude and interest and to provide in the variety of manpower needs of the country (Transkei Legislative Assembly, 1973, pp. 243-245; Transkei Department of Education, 1978, p. 10).

9. Up to Standard two the medium of instruction shall be the mother-tongue and thereafter it shall be English. The Minister has the right to issue decrees in connection with the medium of instruction.

10. The appointment and dismissal of teachers rests with the Minister. When vice-principals and principals of secondary schools are appointed the Minister acts on the recommendation of the Government Commission (Transkei Government, Act No. 11/19/4, Sec. 1).

11. No provision is made for differentiation in education on account of race or colour. The Minister of Education stated in his policy speech in 1977: "In Transkei there will be just education. There will be no room for Bantu Education, White Education or Coloured Education" (Transkei National Assembly, 1977, p. 150).

3.3 ORGANISATION AND CONTROL

An analysis of the organisation and control of the Transkeian educational system shows firstly that it is a system in which a voice in educational matters is given to various societal relationships. The role and responsibility of the various social structures (and individuals) concerned are regulated through the Education Act of 1966 (Act No. 9 of 1966) as amended. (This judicial integration and harmonization of educational interests is the responsibility of the State) (Stone, 1974, p. 83). The authority of

the various social structures is almost exclusively of an advisory nature. Control up to the local level is exercised by the Department of Education which is responsible to the Minister of Education through the Secretary. The Transkeian educational system can also, by reason of its organisation and control, be typified as a centralized system with a hierarchical pattern of power delegation. In spite of provision which is made for the participation in education of various social structures the educational system, as it has developed up to the present time, is predominantly a state system. A possible reason for this is that the Transkeian population has for more than a century been by tradition accustomed to an educational system in which the local authorities (district councils), local communities and even the Central Government (General Council or "Bunga") were denied any voice in the planning, control and organisation of education. Up to the middle of this century these functions were in the hands of instances outside Transkei. The apathy of the local authorities and parents concerning education are clearly portrayed in the following two quotations. During the discussion of the budget debate in 1977, one of the members of Parliament made the following remark: "Up to now they (the parents) have regarded it as the Mfundisi's school (missionary's school) ... now they regard it as the principal's school ... even the teachers have tended to forget to whom the school belongs, so bringing them (parents and teachers) together into close touch in discussing this matter will remind the teacher that he is an agent of the community" (Transkei National Assembly, 1977, p. 158). During the same discussion the Minister of Education said the following in connection with the role of local authorities in education: "These Authorities participate in the filling of vacant posts of vice-principals and principals, but otherwise they stand aloof" (Transkei

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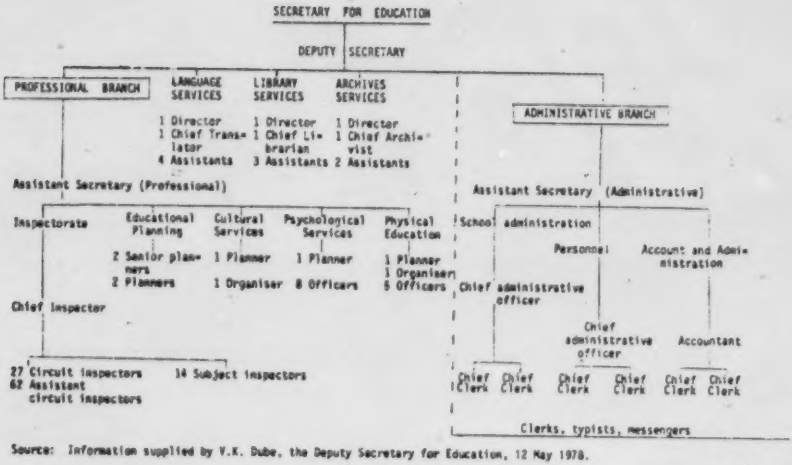
National Assembly, 1977, p. 153). For this reason the government was compelled, in the interests of the development of the nation and of the country (thus the development of civilization) to develop a centralised system of organisation and control in which the State was to play a leading role. To prevent education from becoming solely a Government concern, ways are constantly sought by which parents and local communities may be given more participation in education (Transkei National Assembly, 1977, p. 153; Transkei Department of Education, 1978, p. 16).

3.3.1 Diagram of the organisation of the Transkeian Education Department (May 1978)



Source: Information supplied by V.K. Dube, the Deputy Secretary for Education, 12 May 1978.

3.3.2 Centralised organisation and control (May 1978)

The legislative power concerning education rests with the Transkeian Parliament which consists of 5 paramount chiefs, 70 chiefs and 75 chosen members. The leader of the governing party acts as Prime Minister and nominates 14 Ministers, one of whom is responsible for education and has the highest executive power regarding education. The appointment of the Minister of Education is a matter of party politics and is thus not of a permanent nature. During the 16 years following self-government there were eight different Ministers of Education and not one of them occupied the position for longer than three years. The Minister has extensive executive power and is charged with all the activities that are necessary for the control and supervision and administration of education (Transkei Government, Act No. 9/1966, Sec. 2) The only restrictions placed on the executive power of the Minister concerns certain financial matters which are undertaken in consultation with the Minister of Finance and conditions of service and appointments which must be determined in consultation with the Government Service Commission (Transkei Government Act No. 9/1966, Sec. 23-24). Since 1979 the Minister has been assisted by a Deputy Minister of Education who does not serve on the Executive Committee as do the other full Ministers.

The permanent chief administrative officer is the Secretary for Education. His appointment is supposed to be of a non-political nature. He is a civil servant and he is responsible to the Minister of Education. During the past five years this post was filled by four different people. The Secretary is assisted by a Deputy Secretary. The activities are further divided into two sections, namely a professional section and an administrative section, with an Assistant Secretary at the head of each section.

The task of the professional section is to provide professional guidance, control through inspection, evaluation of educational services and facilities, educational planning, introduction and cessation of courses and related matters. This section consists of the following sub-sections:

Language services controlled by a director
Library services controlled by a director
Archives services controlled by a director
Department of cultural matters controlled by a planner
Psychological services controlled by a planner
Physical education controlled by a planner

Educational planning which is divided into one section for primary education and another for secondary education, each with a senior educational planner at its head, assisted by an educational planner. This section has extensive duties which include the following: planning and control of inspection of schools, compilation of syllabi, planning of courses, selection of books, organisation of refresher courses for teachers, planning and control of teacher training and of technical and vocational education, guidance to teachers, the compilation of school calendars and the processing of statistical data.

Inspectorate controlled by a chief inspector. For administrative and control purposes the Transkei is at present divided into 27 districts. At the head of each district or circuit is a circuit inspector who is assisted by assistant circuit inspectors (62 in total) and assisted in administrative matters by grade two clerks (47 in total). The circuit inspector is the representative of the Department of Education in his area and is responsible for the administrative and professional control and guidance. It is envisaged in future to place the emphasis to an increasing degree on the

function of the inspector as professional guidance officer. Excepting the above-mentioned inspectors this section also consists of subject inspectors for Music, Agriculture, Religious Education, Domestic Science and Technical subjects.

The administrative section, controlled by an Assistant Secretary is divided into three parts, namely school administration, personnel and an accountancy department. At the head of each sub-section is a chief clerk. They are assisted by approximately 120 senior and junior clerks. General administrative duties, such as control of hostels and material requirements, payment of salaries, awarding of bursaries, etc. are performed in these sub-sections.

3.3.3 Central consultation and linkage

Provision for linkage between the executive authority and interested parties and educational experts is made by legislation and supplemented by policy declarations. This linkage is necessary in a developing country like Transkei where the community has not yet accepted its responsibility and involvement regarding education and where the development of a state-controlled educational system at the expense of internal sovereignity of the school is a strong possibility.

In accordance with the above-mentioned linkage the Minister announced regulations in July 1974 for the establishment of an Education Advisory Council for Transkei (Transkei Government Notice, No. 76/1974, pp. 3-8). The members

of the Council are appointed by the Minister and it consists of one senior educational planner, one educational planner, two circuit inspectors, one principal of a primary school, one principal of a training school, one university teacher and two other members who must be Transkeian voters whom the Minister considers to be fit to serve on the Council. The Council with the approval of the Minister may summons experts to assist with consultation. Meetings are held at least once a year and twice a year at the most. The Council assists the Minister in formulating the general educational policy for the preservation and promotion of education. Furthermore it serves the Minister with advice on suggested legislation or on any matter which the Minister refers to the Council.

The first meeting was held on 6 November 1976 at which time the chairman referred to the necessity of democracy in education (Transkei Department of Education, Departmental file no. 6/1/3). The Council is extremely active and apart from matters which the Minister referred for deliberation, acted on their own instance by discussing and examining matters like the following: resignation of teachers, pensions, conditions of service of teachers, shortage of teachers in secondary schools, reformatories, pre-primary education, in-service training of teachers and education for Coloureds (Transkei Department of Education, Departmental file no. 6/1/3). The Council requested the Minister to give the Transkeian Teachers' Association representation on the Council. Permission was granted and from 1978 the Teachers' Association will be represented by one member (Transkei Depart-

ment of Education, Departmental file no. 6/1/3). The Coloured community also requested to be represented on the Council. The legal representative of the State recommended that the number of members should be increased to three to make provision for Coloured representation, but that it should not be stated in the regulations that special provisions exist for Coloured members on the Council (Transkei Department of Education, Departmental file 6/1/3). The Council also plans for linkage with the subject committees and decided during the first meeting in 1978 that copies of the reports of subject committees on specific orders should be submitted to the Council.

The Transkei Education Act of 1966 decrees that the Minister may recognise teachers' associations for advisory purposes. This recognition was officially arranged with the Minister's permission so that the Transkeian Teachers' Association could designate a representative to the Advisory Council. Apart from this linkage it often occurs in practice that the chairman of the Transkeian Teachers' Association submits proposals to the Minister or Secretary. Usually the representatives discuss the matter with the Deputy Secretary who refers it to the Secretary with his recommendations. The Secretary can either comply with the request or refer the matter to the Minister (Dube, personal interview, 1978). There is also central linkage between the Education Department and other State departments in the form of representation on the Central Planning Board. The purpose of this Board was explained by the Minister of Planning and Commerce as follows: "For effective planning to occur it is vital that the development efforts of the different government departments be co-ordinated

by a central planning body... The Planning Board will fill this role and make recommendations to the Cabinet" (Transkei National Assembly, 1977, p. 225). The Secretaries of the various State Departments, including Education have seats in this corporate Central Planning Board. Through this linkage education may be co-ordinated with the development of the country, especially in the area of economics.

In 1978 the Transkeian Examination Board was established on which the Department of Education, the teachers, the university and the Joint Matriculation Board of the Republic of South Africa were represented. The function of this body is to watch over the standard of education (Transkei Department of Education, 1979, p. 8), especially on secondary level and to ensure that certificates issued by the Transkeian Education Department are recognised outside Transkei (Transkei National Assembly, 1977, p. 165).

In 1977 and 1978 subject committees for individual or a group of related subjects were established to take care of the organisation, development and co-ordination of the teaching of the various subjects. The members consist mainly of experienced and capable teachers, but inspectors and university teachers also serve on some of these committees. The chairman reports to the Assistant Secretary (professional) who may give specific orders to the subject committees (Dube, personal interview, 1978).

3.3.4 Decentralized control

In the Education Act of 1966 specific provision is made for the participation of Transkeian citizens and local authorities in the control and admi-

nistration of Government schools (Transkei Government, Act No. 9/1966, Sec. 26-27).

The function of these bodies is almost exclusively of an advisory nature and they are therefore responsible only to a slight degree for the decentralization of authority.

In 1971 the Minister of Education issued regulations for the establishment of school committees for all Government schools including teacher training schools This committee is assembled by two members nominated by the tribal authority in the case of a primary school or the regional authority in the case of a secondary school, two members appointed by the Minister of Education to manage religious or other matters, the principal and vice-principal or vice-principals if there are more than one. A further four members are chosen by the parents from amongst themselves in the case of a primary or junior secondary school. In the case of secondary schools the parents select two members while the circuit inspector and the hostel superintendent are ex officio members (Transkei Government, Notice No. 133/1971, pp. 91-92).

The school committee must hold a meeting every three months (Transkei Government, Notice No. 133/1971, p. 96) and during March every year a meeting for the parents must be called (Transkei Government, Notice No. 133/1971, p. 98). During this annual meeting the budget for school funds must be read and the principal must give an account of school activities.

The parents are given the opportunity to discuss school affairs which concern them. Apart from this meeting the school commitee has the right to call a meeting of parents at any time (Transkei Government, Notice No. 133/1971, p. 98).

Matters which call for departmental action must be submitted to the circuit

inspector by the principal. In practice very little comes from these arrangements. In this connection the Minister of Education said during the budget debate in 1977: "May I now ask how many of your schools have organised such parents' days during this past month? That is our starting point. We can start only when the department receives the information contained in the submission made to the principal by the parents" (Transkei National Assembly, 1977, p. 166).

In order to obtain more participation by parents and to bring about co-operation between parents and teachers, the Minister of Education gave the Education Advisory Council orders in 1977 to examine the desirability of parent-teacher associations. In his 1978 policy speech the Minister mentioned that these associations should be established throughout Transkei and added: "It is the opinion of my department that the inclusion of parents at all levels in education can only have beneficial results" (Transkei National Assembly, 1977, p. 166).

Apart from the share of tribal and regional authorities in the nomination of representatives on the school committees, the following duties are entrusted to them (Transkei Government, Act No. 9/1966, Sec. 26):

- to advise the Department concerning education or Government schools in their area;
- to obtain effective distribution of schools in consultation with the Department;
- to examine complaints or any other matter which is referred to them by the Department;
- to make recommendations to the Department concerning the appointment of

teachers.

As is the case with the parents, these local, partly traditional management bodies are in practice inactive and even apathetic towards education in spite of the provision made by law and regulations for their participation (Transkei Government, Act No. 9/1966, Sec. 26). Possible reasons for this lack of participation in educational matters at the local level are that the inhabitants of the country were accustomed to a system which was administered by instances outside Transkei, that a large portion of the adult population is illiterate and that the father is absent for long periods because he is working in the Republic of South Africa.

3.4 FINANCING

It has already been pointed out that the economic and demographic factors jointly contribute to the heavy financial burden concerning education that rests on the economically active portion of the population (see Sections 3.1.2 and 3.1.3). Approximately 26 per cent of the population are in the age group 5-15 years (Transkei Department of Commerce, Industry and Tourism, n.d., p. 15). The annual growth rate of children of school age is about 3 per cent, whereas the actual total number of pupils in the 15 years since self-government has increased by more than 6 per cent annually (calculated from Transkei Department of Education, 1965, p. 17 and Transkei Department of Education, 1979, p. 13). The per capita Gross Domestic Product for 1975 was R98 (see Section 3.1.3). In an attempt to provide educational facilities for all children of school age, in 1974 12 per cent and in 1975 10 per cent of the Gross Domestic Product was spent on education (calculated from Benso, 1978, pp. 17, 68). Accordingly an average of more than 18 per cent of the national budget over the past four years was appropriated for education (see

Table 3.1). Apart from the high proportional expenditure for education, the cost per pupil as indicated in Table 3.3 is extremely low. The conclusion may be drawn that the financial factor is one of the most important factors barring the way to the attainment of the ideal of, "universal education for Transkeians by Transkeians" as was envisaged by the Minister of Education in 1977 (Transkei National Assembly, 1977, p. 153). Compulsory education for the whole of the primary school cannot be implemented at this stage because of a shortage of money. On the contrary, it is even being considered to limit admission to the primary school (Transkei Department of Education, 1979, p. 36).

TABLE 3.1 TRANSKEI - GOVERNMENT BUDGET OF EXPENDITURE, 1975/76-1978/79

DEPARTMENT	1975/76 R'000	%	1976/77 R'000	%	1977/78 R'000	%	1978/79 R'000	%
Prime Minister	2 358		3 029		2 539		4 902	
Agriculture and Forestry	18 993		19 871		28 290		39 686	
Auditor-General	-		-		239		319	
Defence	-		-		1 342		3 651	
Education	22 373	21,77	24 884	18,32	41,662	17,50	55 517	16,91
Finance	-		-		2 643		38 973	
Foreign Affairs	-		-		2 013		2 578	
Health and Welfare	12 957		17 295		24 922		30 893	
Interior	19 832		26 912		35 441		40 161	
Justice	4 096		6 332		2 300		2 963	
Local Government and Land Tenure	-		-		2 148		3 080	
Planning and Commerce	-		-		29 180		25 185	
Police	-		-		4 628		7 122	
Posts and Telecommunications	-		-		2 899		3 811	
Prisons	-		-		2 302		2 737	
Public Service Commission	-		-		298		344	
Transport	-		-		4 129		5 406	
Works and Energie	22 159		37 476		51 123		60 942	
TOTAL	102 768		135 799		238 098		328 270	

Source: Transkei, 1976, p. 1; Transkei, 1978, pp. 1-2.

TABLE 3.2 TRANSKEI- GOVERNMENT BUDGET OF EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE, 1975/76-1978/79

Sub-heads	1975/76 R	1976/77 R	1977/78 R	1978/79 R
Salaries, Wages and Allowances	19 224 300	22 261 700	30 403 500	41 268 920
Subsistence and Transport	121 000	251 100	222 000	296 500
Postal, Telegraph and Telephone Services	12 000	20 400	22 300	24 380
Printing, Advertisements and Publications	35 500	55 200	88 700	73 600
Miscellaneous Expenses	49 100	59 100	62 400	474 600
Supplies and Services	2 474 900	1 877 900	2 055 500	3 839 800
Bursaries to Pupils	78 200	78 100	163 500	177 500
State-Aided Special Schools	229 400	240 300	283 900	337 000
Capital Services for Special Schools	128 600	200	430 200	442 500
Subsidies to Hostels	20 000	40 000	75 000	112 000
Grant to Transkei University			7 485 000	7 845 200
Examination Expenses			370 000	470 000
National Museum				35 000
Sport and Recreation				30 000
National Libraries				90 000
TOTAL	22 373 000	24 884 000	41 662 000	55 517 000

Source: Transkei, 1976, p. 18; Transkei, 1978, p. 26.

During the past four years between 85 per cent and 90 per cent of the total eudcational budget (excluding the university) was allocated for salaries, wages and allowances. The high growth rate of the school population, in conjunction with the planned lowering of the pupil-teacher ratio will therefore result in a marked increase in the total educational expenditure . Salaries will also have to remain competitive in order to prevent teachers from leaving the Department for employment in the private sector or the Republic of South Africa.

TABLE 3.3 TRANSKEI- CURRENT GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION PER PUPIL, 1972/73-1977/78

	Total Expenditure*	Total Enrolment	Current Expenditure per pupil
1972/73	R10 410 000	456 156	R23
1973/74	12 187 000	478 326	25
1974/75	13 365 000	489 250	35
1975/76	21 647 000	518 928	42
1976/77	24 884 000	599 690	41
1977/78	34 177 000**	636 481	54

Source: Benso, 1978, pp. 60, 62.

* Does not include capital expenditure by the Department of Works.
** Does not include university expenditure.

The current expenditure per pupil per year in the primary school was estimated at R35,00 for 1977/78, while the current expenditure per pupil in the secondary school for the same period was estimated at R150 per year. The main reasons for the great discrepancy in expenditure between primary and secondary pupils are, firstly that the pupil-teacher ratio in the primary schools was 64:1 while it was 25:1 in secondary schools; secondly, the salaries of primary school teachers were significantly lower than those of secondary school teachers (Transkei Department of Education, Circular No. 12/1978). A third reason was that a book subsidy of between R20,00 and R40,00 per secondary pupil was paid by the Government during 1977/78 whereas primary pupils received only free readers and did not receive any textbooks (Transkei Department of Education, Circular No. 21/1977). School attendance is free with the exception of a small contribution towards the

school fund of R0,40 per pupil per year in the lower primary school, R1,20 in the higher primary standards and R4,00 in the secondary school. The primary pupils receive free readers which remain the property of the school, but must pay for stationery and other textbooks. In the secondary school pupils must also pay for stationery but textbooks are subsidized as follows (Transkei Department of Education, Circular No. 21/1977).

Standard 5 - R20 per pupil
Standard 6 - R20 per pupil
Standard 7 - R20 per pupil
Standard 8 - R30 per pupil
Standard 9 - R40 per pupil
Standard 10 - R30 per pupil

The following bursaries are made available annually by the Department of Education (Transkei Department of Education, Circular-bursary awards 1978):

- for all students taking the Junior Secondary Teachers course R300 for the first year and R235 for the second year;
- thirty-five bursaries of R470 per year for a four-year university course for the B.A., B.Comm. or B.Sc. degrees followed by a one year teachers diploma;
- fifty merit bursaries awarded to Standard eight pupils to complete their secondary education at St. John's College, Umtata. The value of the bursaries are R225 for Standard eight, R240 for Standard nine and R205 for Standard ten.

3.5 PARTICULAR CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SCHOOL SYSTEM

Since 1975 a twelve year school system has been followed which is divided into four phases of three years each. Primary education is divided into two phases, namely a lower primary phase from Sub A to Standard one and a higher primary phase from Standard two to Standard four. The junior secondary phase covers Standards five to seven and the senior secondary phase Standards eight to ten. The junior secondary schools are not separated physically from the primary schools. Table 3.4 shows a summary of some statistical features of the Transkeian school system. Of the 1 142 junior secondary schools in 1978, 1 106 were combined primary and junior secondary schools. The senior secondary schools are physically separated from the primary schools. Of the 2 380 schools in 1978, 2 220 were primary and combined primary and junior secondary schools. In the same year 80 per cent of the pupils were in primary schools and only 5 per cent in the senior secondary phase.

3.5.1 Increase in pupil enrolment

Table 3.5 shows an average annual growth rate of approximately 5 per cent for the total school population, while the growth rate for children of school-age was estimated to be less than 3 per cent. Although the growth rate in pupil enrolment in the primary schools is higher than in secondary education, the growth rate of approximately 11 per cent annually in secondary schools, is more than twice as high as in the primary school. It can be expected that this great difference in the growth rates will continue for at least the next five years, and may even rise. The reason is that a large percentage of the children of primary school-age already attend school, while a much smaller percentage of the pupils of secondary school-age attend school.

TABLE 3.4 TRANSKEI-SCHOOLS, PUPILS, TEACHERS AND CLASSROOMS, 1978

	Number of Schools	% of Total	Number of Pupils	% of Total	Number of Teachers			Pupils per teacher	Number of Classrooms	Pupils per Classroom
					Male	Female	Total			
Lower Primary Schools	152	6,38	359 723	52,48	20	4 513	4 533	79	*	*
Higher Primary Schools	962	40,42	186 698	27,24	724	3 255	3 979	47		
Primary Schools Sub-total	1 114	46,80	546 421	79,72	744	7 768	8 512	64		
Junior Secondary Schools	1 142	47,98	101 564	14,82	2 279	1 836	4 115	25		
Senior Secondary Schools	110	4,62	33 636	4,91	699	477	1 176	29		
Technical Secondary Schools	1	0,04	346	0,05	20	8	28	12		
Secondary Schools Sub-total	1 253	52,64	135 546	19,78	2 998	2 321	5 319	25		
Teacher Training Schools	9	0,39	3 034	0,44	50	75	125	24		
Vocational Schools	4	0,17	452	0,06	26	4	30	15		
TOTAL	2 380	100,00	685 453	100,00	3 818	10 168	13 986	49	12 497	55

*Detailed information not available.

Source: Information supplied by the Transkei Department of Education, 1978.

TABLE 3.5 TRANSKEI - INCREASE IN PUPIL ENROLMENT, 1969-1978

	PRIMARY PUPILS			SECONDARY PUPILS			TOTAL		
	Enrolment	Increase	% Increase	Enrolment	Increase	% Increase	Enrolment	Increase	% Increase
1968	357 765			16 431			374 196		
1969	380 851	23 086	6,45	18 199	1 768	10,76	399 050	24 854	6,64
1970	395 306	14 455	3,80	20 940	2 741	15,06	416 246	17 196	4,31
1971	414 805	19 499	4,93	24 576	3 636	17,36	439 381	23 135	5 56
1972	424 783	9 978	2,41	26 049	1 473	5,99	450 832	11 451	2,61
1973	439 829	15 046	3,54	27 542	1 493	5,73	467 371	16 539	3,67
1974	454 151	14 322	3,26	29 708	2 166	7,86	483 859	16 488	3,53
1975	413 270	40 881	-9,00	91 726	62 018	208,76	504 996	21 914	4,53
1976	483 037	69 767	16,88	101 629	9 903	10,79	584 666	78 893	15,60
1977	513 014	29 977	6,21	120 350	18 721	18,42	633 364	48 698	8,33
1978	546 421	33 407	6,51	135 200	14 850	12,33	681 621	48 257	7,62

Source: Transkei Department of Education, 1968-1977.

Note the following:

- 1968 to 1974: primary pupils Sub A to Standard six
  secondary pupils Form one to Form five;*
- 1975 to 1978: primary pupils Sub A to Standard four
  secondary pupils Standard five to Standard ten;
- 346 technical school pupils excluded in 1978;
- The districts Glen Grey and Herschel were incorporated with Transkei in 1976. The enrolment figures in these two districts in 1976 were: primary and junior secondary 61 983, senior secondary 2 017, total 64 000.

3.5.2 Distribution of pupils according to age

Table 3.6 shows that a very large percentage of the school population is older than the normal age for their standard. The main reasons for this are the fact that many pupils start their school career at an age above the normal and the high failure rate in the primary as well as the secondary school (see Table 3.12). The large number of pupils above normal age in the junior primary schools causes a rise in pupil-teacher ratio which was 79:1 in 1978. This also causes overcrowding in the classrooms. In the next chapter the implications and scope of the age distribution are discussed in more detail, as well as the ensuing educational needs.

*Before 1975 forms one to five were the equivalents of the present Standards six to ten.

TABLE 3.6 TRANSKEI - DISTRIBUTION OF PUPILS ACCORDING TO AGE, 1978

GIRLS

AGE	STD. A	B	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
-7	19763	1231	56	1								
7	27223	9235	1233	103		1						
8	17678	14922	6877	1468	146	34						
9	8981	11293	10618	5904	1715	548	20					
10	4263	7206	9754	8569	5234	1782	224	39				
11	1891	3450	6405	7616	6888	3936	1245	235	57			
12	772	1631	4354	5996	6748	5864	3441	1255	218	4		
13	349	767	2538	4036	5732	5968	4864	3024	1259	104	3	
14	111	331	1315	2296	3973	4920	4947	4272	3009	608	48	8
15	24	100	541	1136	2236	3209	4101	4617	4106	1958	194	45
16	9	37	183	382	924	1624	2516	3543	4187	3730	564	203
17	2	11	50	90	286	644	1028	1908	3230	3090	976	432
18	2	2	20	37	99	208	428	956	2084	2790	989	659
19			4	16	22	50	139	307	878	1639	740	569
20			1		5	6	36	88	400	786	430	397
21					1	1	12	51	158	258	199	178
22+						1	6	17	45	165	118	130
TOTAL	81068	50216	43949	37650	34009	28896	23017	20342	19631	14162	4261	2621
NUMBER ABOVE NORMAL AGE	34082	24828	25165	21605	20026	16631	13223	11517	10982	8728	2476	1274
PERCENTAGE ABOVE NORMAL AGE	42,0	49,4	57,3	57,4	58,9	57,6	57,5	56,6	55,9	61,6	58,1	48,6

BOYS

AGE	STD. A	B	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
-7	19641	1324	12	1								
7	28799	8334	722	79	8							
8	18822	13530	5360	1107	64	1	3					
9	10022	11859	9264	4650	806	163	14					
10	5391	8547	9594	6807	3329	1032	157	23			1	
11	2450	4434	7497	6433	4862	2214	677	99	13			
12	1074	2575	5397	5822	5309	3665	1579	512	113			
13	487	1285	3655	4559	5446	3845	2481	1268	415	33		
14	202	620	2078	3169	4407	3917	2833	1938	1127	202	6	1
15	46	212	1046	1541	2993	2370	2678	2372	1651	658	84	16
16	19	71	353	689	1716	1826	2326	2325	2030	962	296	104
17	10	24	151	252	644	974	1336	1695	1947	1242	541	214
18		10	66	91	257	367	719	1169	1678	1275	726	351
19		4	2	18	52	102	244	543	1018	1040	586	426
20			1	5	13	28	112	235	669	772	505	367
21				1	3	4	28	103	237	431	269	311
22+					1	1	14	43	155	417	293	368
TOTAL	86463	52829	45198	35224	29910	21009	15201	12320	11053	7032	3198	2202
NUMBER ABOVE NORMAL AGE	38523	29641	29840	22580	20841	13934	10290	8480	7734	5177	2381	1462
PERCENTAGE ABOVE NORMAL AGE	44,6	56,1	66,0	64,1	69,7	66,3	67,6	68,8	70,0	73,6	72,2	64,6

Source: Information supplied by the Transkei Department of Education, 1978

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3.5.3 Distribution of schools

The primary and junior secondary schools are distributed fairly evenly throughout the country in accordance with the population distribution. An analysis of Table 3.7 shows that up to Standard seven (thus for nine years of general education) schools are within walking-distance of most children. In more than half the districts there are only three or even fewer secondary schools. For a large portion of the children these schools are not within walking-distance, with the result that boarding facilities must be provided.

The classification of schools by standard corresponds to the population distribution and the policy of the Government to place basic literacy within reach of all school-age children. According to Table 3.8 there are thus 465 schools (representing 20 per cent of the total number of schools) which provide education from Sub A to Standard two or lower.

TABLE 3.7 TRANSKEI - GEOGRAPHIC DISTRIBUTION OF SCHOOLS, 1978

DISTRICT	TOTAL NUMBER OF SCHOOLS	TYPE OF SCHOOL					
		JUNIOR PRIMARY	SENIOR PRIMARY	JUNIOR SECONDARY	SENIOR SECONDARY	TEACHER TRAINING	VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL
Bizana	91	10	35	41	5	0	0
Butterworth	58	4	17	31	4	1	1
Elliotdale	46	7	25	12	2	0	0
Engcobo	130	16	59	50	3	1	1
Flagstaff	72	0	35	34	2	1	0
Glen Grey	142	8	54	66	13	1	0
Herschel	92	9	31	46	5	1	0
Idutywa	78	11	31	34	2	0	0
Kentani	76	7	29	37	3	0	0
Libode	85	8	37	37	3	0	0
Lusikisiki	105	1	53	46	4	0	1
Matatiele	94	3	27	57	6	1	0
Mt.Ayliff	53	3	18	30	2	0	0
Mt.Fletcher	82	6	33	40	3	0	0
Mt.Frere	122	6	48	62	6	0	0
Mqanduli	71	4	38	26	3	0	0
Ngqamakwe	87	3	29	51	4	0	0
Ngqeleni	81	3	36	40	2	0	0
Port St.Johns	36	4	12	19	1	0	0
Qumbu	98	4	41	46	6	1	0
St.Marks	75	4	18	49	4	0	0
Tabankulu	92	2	61	26	3	0	0
Tsolo	86	6	29	45	6	0	0
Tsomo	75	9	24	40	2	0	0
Umtata	107	8	39	51	7	1	1
Umzimkulu	109	3	48	53	4	0	1
Willowvale	86	0	37	46	3	0	0
Xalanga	51	3	18	27	2	1	0
TOTAL	2380	152	962	1142	110	9	5

Source: Information supplied by the Transkei Department of Education, 1978

TABLE 3.8 TRANSKEI - CLASSIFICATION OF SCHOOLS ACCORDING TO STANDARD AND STUDY FIELD, 1978.

STANDARDS / STUDY FIELDS	NUMBER OF SCHOOLS
Sub A only	25
Sub A - Sub B	48
Sub A - Standard 1	79
Sub A - Standard 2	313
Sub A - Standard 3	52
Sub A - Standard 4	592
Sub A - Standard 5	27
Sub A - Standard 6	276
Sub A - Standard 7	803
Standard 1 - Standard 5	1
Standard 2 - Standard 4	3
Standard 2 - Standard 7	1
Standard 3 - Standard 4	2
Standard 5 - Standard 6	1
Standard 5 - Standard 7	33
Standard 8 - Standard 10	110
Technical	1
Vocational	4
Teacher training	9
TOTAL	2380

Source: Information supplied by the Transkei Department of Education, 1978

TABLE 3.9 TRANSKEI - ESTIMATED AND PROJECTED BLACK POPULATION, 1970 - 1985

AGE GROUP	1970	1975	1980	1985
under 5	372 000	436 261	499 059	567 844
5 - 9	324 000	365 136	429 085	492 351
10 - 14	274 000	322 266	363 384	427 263
15 - 19	237 039	272 260	320 382	361 458
20 - 24	181 952	234 294	269 294	317 133
25 - 29	167 754	178 742	230 405	265 088
30 - 34	152 849	164 167	175 114	225 993
35 - 39	120 626	148 604	159 823	170 725
40 - 44	109 273	115 946	143 340	154 667
45 - 49	89 056	103 499	110 310	137 015
50 - 54	70 798	82 730	96 734	103 671
55 - 59	57 647	64 260	75 657	89 092
60 - 64	49 229	50 240	56 504	67 178
65 - 69	36 041	40 533	41 917	47 663
70 - 74	30 700	27 161	30 949	32 555
75 and over	26 580	33 731	35 095	38 670
TOTAL	2 299 544	2 639 830	3 037 052	3 498 366

Source: Transkei Department of Commerce, Industry and Tourism, n.d., p. 15

3.5.4 Percentage of population attending school

According to Table 3.10 303 157 (98,68 per cent) of the 307 200 children in the age group seven to ten years are at school. These pupils represent the normal age group for the first four years of the primary school. It is possible that this high school attendance figure indicates an erroneous estimate of the population in Table 3.9 as well as an erroneous age distribution in Table 3.6. In the latter case however, this is unlikely. Apart from these figures there are sufficient indications that a very high percentage of the pupils between seven and

ten years attend school. The introduction of compulsory education for this age group should therefore not result in a considerable increase in the number of pupils.

Between ten and eleven years the enrolment figures decline by approximately 14 per cent. A possible reason may be that a large number of schools provide education only from Sub A to Standard two and that after Standard two some pupils do not continue their education due to the distance from the schools. In the first year of senior secondary education (15 to 16 years) there is also a noticeable decline in pupil enrolments. An additional reason for this decline is that many pupils enter employment at this age.

TABLE 3.10 TRANSKEI - PERCENTAGE OF POPULATION AT SCHOOL ACCORDING TO AGE, 1978.

AGE	ESTIMATED POPULATION[M] 1978	PUPILS	PERCENTAGE PUPILS AT SCHOOL
6	82 900	42 029	50,70
7	80 300	75 237	93,69
8	77 900	80 012	102,71
9	75 600	75 957	100,47
10	73 400	71 951	98,03
11	71 200	60 402	84,83
12	69 200	56 329	81,40
13	67 300	52 118	77,44
14	65 400	46 338	70,85
15	63 600	38 464	60,48
16	61 900	29 613	47,84
17	60 000	20 847	34,75
18	58 200	15 053	25,86
19	56 300	8 406	14,93
20	54 400	4 846	8,91
21	52 600	2 245	4,27
22+	50 700	1 774	

Source: Data processed from Transkei Department of Commerce, Industry and Tourism, n.d., p. 15

3.5.5 Distribution of pupils according to standard.

The largest portion of the school population, about two thirds of the pupils, are in Sub A to Standard two. According to Table 3.11 the pupils in these standards expressed as a percentage of the total enrolment gradually declined from just over 70 per cent to approximately 64 per cent. After 1974 the percentage remained more or less constant at 64 per cent. The percentage pupils in the secondary school gradually increased from about 3 per cent in 1964 to more than 6 per cent in 1974. This gradual increase was continued after the structural change in 1975 when secondary education was extended from five years to six years.

This table further indicates a very high dropout figure during the first four years of the primary school which is generally accepted as being the minimum education for basic literacy. Especially noticeable is the high dropout figure after the first four years. There is also no indication that the situation has improved at all over the past 15 years. These early school leavers derive very little or no benefit from their school attendance and leave school virtually illiterate, while a large percentage of the educational budget is spent on them and the pupil-teacher ratio is greatly raised. The education of other pupils who do continue their education and who can benefit from education is seriously disadvantaged by this situation.

After the structural change in 1975 a much larger percentage of pupils continued their education after primary education, at junior secondary schools. The main reason was that there were then many more schools which provided secondary education than before. Pupils no longer needed to change schools since most junior secondary schools were combined with primary schools. Enrolment in the senior secondary schools has also increased during the past four years.

TABLE 3.11 TRANSKEI - DISTRIBUTION OF PUPILS ACCORDING TO STANDARD, 1964-1978.

Year	Sub A	Sub B	Std I	Std II	Total	%	Std III	Std IV	Std V	Std VI	Total	%	Form I	Form II	Form III	Form IV	Form V	Total	%	GRAND TOTAL
1964	75597	47152	44132	35815	202696	70,44	26783	19845	15140	13955	75723	26,32	3934	2875	1876	412	218	9315	3,24	287734
1965	87268	48667	43946	34802	214683	71,30	28418	19901	15225	13245	76789	25,50	4203	2997	1772	432	222	9626	3,20	301098
1966	96997	54830	48019	36326	236172	70,92	30984	22177	16979	14598	84738	25,45	5386	3879	2207	400	233	12015	3,63	333015
1967	98550	60233	51886	38592	249261	71,04	32111	22401	17807	15641	87952	25,07	5297	4798	2814	498	261	13668	3,89	350881
1968	99661	64091	56346	43639	263737	70,48	34721	23626	18875	16806	94028	25,13	6406	5155	3783	744	343	16431	4,39	374196
1969	103283	66183	61171	47584	278221	69,72	39038	25933	19930	17729	102630	25,72	6979	5946	3957	892	407	18181	4,56	399032
1970	101918	68058	63115	50920	284011	68,17	42576	28427	21282	19378	111663	26,80	7687	6647	4972	1140	497	20943	5,03	416617
1971	105376	69386	65811	53028	293601	66,82	46128	31316	23530	20230	121204	27,59	9077	7206	5729	1765	799	24576	5,59	439381
1972	107040	69868	66446	54122	297476	65,98	47114	34019	24827	21347	127307	28,24	9979	8193	5256	1766	855	26049	5,78	450832
1973	111135	70447	67629	55108	304319	65,11	48896	35453	27183	23978	135510	28,99	9110	8911	6236	2187	1098	27542	5,89	467371
1974	110156	73473	70672	56580	310881	64,25	50892	37162	28482	26734	143270	29,61	10021	9044	6844	2634	1165	29708	6,14	483859

Year	Sub A	Sub B	Std 1	Total	%	Std 2	Std 3	Std 4	Total	%	Std 5	Std 6	Std 7	Total	%	Std 8	Std 9	Std 10	Total	%	
1975	115578	73789	72489	261856	51,86	59975	53385	38056	151416	29,99	28014	23995	26414	78423	15,53	8073	3463	1673	13209	2,62	504904
1976	148240	103212	77547	328999	56,27	59050	51281	43707	154038	26,35	33565	27885	16031	77481	13,25	17903	4056	2189	24148	4,13	584666
1977	159331	93284	84982	337597	53,30	68428	61472	45517	175417	27,70	36141	29504	25668	91313	14,42	18888	7348	2601	29037	4,58	633364
1978	167531	103045	89147	359723	52,77	72874	63919	49905	186698	27,39	38218	32662	30684	101564	14,90	21194	7559	4883	33636	4,93	681621

Source: Transkei Department of Education, 1965 - 1977. Information for 1978 supplied by the Transkei Department of Education

The high failure rate which is apparent from the large number of repeaters in Table 3.12 may be ascribed to various factors (K-N-N Commission, 1973, pp. 36 - 77). A large percentage of the educational budget is spent on repeaters since more than 12 per cent of the total school population are repeaters. This large number of repeaters also raises the pupil-teacher ratio and increases the number of pupils per classroom. It is conspicuous that the percentage of boys who repeat a standard is higher throughout than the percentage of girls. In Standards seven and eight where an external examination is written, the repeater percentage is much higher than in the other standards. Most pupils who fail these standards leave school because most of them have by then reached the age of entering the labour market. In 1976 11 425 pupils (48 per cent) failed Standard seven, of whom only 5 477 returned to school as repeaters the next year (Transkei Department of Education, 1976/77, p. 16). In Standard eight 9 817 (55 per cent) failed, of whom only about half, namely 4 916 repeated the Standard the following year.

A possible reason for the low percentage full-time repeaters in Standard ten is that most pupils supplement the subjects in which they failed by means of private study.

TABLE 3.12 TRANSKEI - SUMMARY OF ENROLMENTS AND REPEATERS IN PRIMARY AND SECONDARY CLASSES, 1977.

STANDARD	SSA		SSB		STD 1		LOWER PRIMARY		STD 2		STD 3		STD 4		HIGHER PRIMARY	
	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G
Enrolment	82366	76965	47746	45538	42709	42273	172821	164776	33278	35150	27749	33723	19145	26372	80172	95245
Repeaters	8561	6933	5741	3973	6756	4821	21058	15727	4866	3823	5025	4428	2741	3260	12632	11511
Repeater Percentage	10,39	9,01	12,02	8,72	15,82	11,40	12,18	9,54	14,62	10,88	18,11	13,13	14,32	12,36	15,76	12,09

STANDARD	STD 5		STD 6		STD 7		JUNIOR SECONDARY		STD 8		STD 9		STD 10		SENIOR SECONDARY	
Enrolment	14292	21849	10864	18640	9020	16648	34176	57137	6493	12395	3373	3975	1432	1369	11298	17739
Repeaters	1747	2212	1399	2187	1876	3601	5022	8000	1463	3453	177	168	26	12	1666	3633
Repeater Percentage	12,22	10,12	12,88	11,73	20,80	21,63	14,69	14,00	22,53	27,86	5,25	4,23	1,82	0,88	14,75	20,48

Source: Information supplied by the Research Unit for Education System Planning, University of the Orange Free State

TABLE 3.13 TRANSKEI - NUMBER OF PUPILS PER TEACHER, PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS*, 1968 - 1978

	TEACHERS			PUPILS			PUPILS PER TEACHER			SCHOOLS		
	Pri= mary	Secon= dary	Total	Pri= mary	Secon= dary	Total	Pri= mary	Secon= dary	Total	Pri= mary	Secon= dary	Total
1968	6081	454	6535	357765	16431	374196	59	35	57	1504	59	1563
1969	6216	483	6699	380851	18181	399032	61	37	60	1532	63	1595
1970	6475	564	7039	395674	20943	416617	61	37	59	1573	67	1640
1971	6746	655	7401	414805	24576	439381	62	38	59	1605	72	1677
1972	7046	711	7704	424783	26049	450832	60	37	59	1651	77	1728
1973	7338	768	8106	439829	27542	467371	60	36	58	1695	83	1778
1974	7642	883	8525	454151	29708	483859	59	34	57	1743	83	1826
1975	6555	2653	9208	413272	91632	504904	63	35	55	816	1086	1902
1976	7284	4517	11801	483037	101629	584666	66	23	50	1144	1154	2298
1977	7883	4884	12768	513014	120350	633364	65	25	50	1056	1218	2274
1978	8512	5319	13831	546421	135200	681621	64	26	49	1114	1252	2366

Source: Transkei Department of Education, 1965 - 1977; see Benso, 1978, pp. 58 - 60

*Up to 1974 secondary schools extended from Form one to five. From 1975 it was Standard five to ten.

The primary schools extended from Sub A to Standard six from 1968 - 1974. From 1975 onwards the primary schools extended from Sub A to Standard 4.

When the districts Glen Grey and Herschel became part of Transkei in 1976, there were in these two districts

61983 pupils in the primary and junior secondary school
2017 pupils in the senior secondary school
1127 teachers in the primary and junior secondary school
157 teachers in the senior secondary school

3.5.6 The number of pupils per teacher

The number of pupils per teacher in the primary schools remained, as indicated in Table 3.13, more or less constant at 60 from 1968 - 1974, and thereafter rose to 66 in 1976. This increase is a result of the structural change in 1975 when Standard five and six became part of the junior secondary school. To many of the combined primary and junior secondary schools Standard seven classes with generally small numbers per class, were added. This resulted in a shift of teachers from the primary schools to the junior secondary schools. The large number of small junior secondary classes and the transfer of primary teachers to these secondary

classes were mainly responsible for the decline in the number of pupils per teacher in the secondary schools after 1975. An important implication which follows is that a large number of teachers who had been trained for the primary schools were teaching in the junior secondary schools.

The decline in the total pupil-teacher ratio after 1974 was the result of an increase in the training of both primary and secondary teachers as indicated in Table 3.15. An additional factor which could possibly have contributed to this situation, is the fact that the number of school years from Sub A to Standard 10 was reduced from 13 years to 12 years.

It has already been mentioned that the high pupil-teacher ratio in the primary schools is partly due to the high percentage of failures and a large number of pupils of above the normal age in the primary schools. The high percentage of pupils who leave school after Sub A and accordingly derive hardly any benefit from education, also increases the pupil-teacher ratio.

In 1967 a one-year course following on the primary teachers' course was introduced in order to train teachers for teaching in Form one. The enrolment for this course, which was discontinued at the end of 1970, was as follows:

1967	15 students
1968	16 students
1969	16 students
1970	14 students

In 1977 a one-year course following on the junior secondary teachers' course was introduced in order to train teachers for teaching in Standard nine and ten. Twenty-six students enrolled for this course. The course was

discontinued at the end of 1977.

The quantitative need for teachers is explained in the following chapter.

TABLE 3.14 TRANSKEI - TEACHER TRAINING, ENROLMENT ACCORDING TO COURSE AND STUDY YEAR, 1969 - 1978

	PRIMARY TEACHERS' COURSE			JUNIOR SECONDARY TEACHERS' COURSE			TOTAL		
YEAR	FIRST YEAR	SECOND YEAR	TOTAL	FIRST YEAR	SECOND YEAR	TOTAL	FIRST YEAR	SECOND YEAR	TOTAL
1969	687	555	1242	0	0	0	687	555	1242
1970	778	616	1394	29	0	29	807	616	1423
1971	812	636	1448	44	23	67	856	659	1515
1972	790	731	1521	39	35	74	829	766	1595
1973	817	665	1482	50	36	86	867	701	1568
1974	1051	812	1863	82	51	133	1133	863	1996
1975	1067	970	2037	127	74	201	1194	1044	2238
1976	1562	1186	2748	116	107	223	1678	1293	2971
1977	1271	1231	2502	167	134	301	1438	1365	2803
1978	1313	1209	2522	350	162	512	1663	1371	3034

Source: Transkei Department of Education, 1968 - 1977

3.5.7 The qualifications of the teachers

According to Table 3.15 only 15 per cent of the teachers in Transkeian schools possess a Standard ten certificate or higher qualification. About 80 per cent of the teachers in the senior secondary schools (which provide instruction from Standard eight to ten) have academic qualifications of Standard ten or lower, while also about 80 per cent of the teachers at junior secondary schools (which provide education from Standard five to seven) have academic qualifications of Standard eight or lower. For the 120 senior secondary schools there are 226 graduates available of whom more than 200 have a B.A. or B.A.-Honours degree. There is a shortage of graduates, especially in the Physical Sciences.

The low academic qualifications of the teachers in general have important implications for training of teachers in the future, as well as for in-service teacher training, inspection, examination, etc.

TABLE 3.15 TRANSKEI - TEACHERS ACCORDING TO QUALIFICATIONS, 1978

	NUMBER OF TEACHERS	PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL	PERCENTAGE OF PRIMARY AND JUNIOR SECONDARY TEACHERS
PRIMARY AND JUNIOR SECONDARY			
Unqualified	92	0,66	,73
Qualified:			
Standard 6	2770	19,80	21,94
Standard 8	8804	62,95	69,72
Standard 10	955	6,83	7,56
Graduated	6	,04	,05
Sub-total	12627		100,00
			PERCENTAGE OF POST-JUNIOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS
POST-JUNIOR SECONDARY (INCLUDING TRAINING SCHOOLS)			
Unqualified	144	1,03	10,60
Qualified:			
Standard 6	3	,02	,22
Standard 8	123	,88	9,05
Standard 10	822	5,88	60,48
Graduated	266	1,91	19,65
Sub-total	1359		100,00
TOTAL	13986	100,00	

Source: Information supplied by the Transkei Department of Education, 1978

Of the 266 qualified teachers in 1978, 24 were Whites
191 Blacks with B.A.
10 Blacks with B.A.-Honours
1 Black with M.A.
36 Blacks with B.Sc.
3 Blacks with B.Sc.-Honours
1 Black with B.Comm.

TABLE 3.16 TRANSKEI - TEACHERS ACCORDING TO QUALIFICATIONS, 1969

	NUMBER OF TEACHERS	PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL
Primary		
Lower than Standard 10	5 993	88,13
Standard 10	223	3,28
Post-primary		
Lower than Standard 10	89	1,32
Standard 10	338	4,97
Graduated	156	2,30
TOTAL	6 799	100,00

Source: Transkei Department of Education, 1970

During the past 10 years the percentage graduated teachers declined from 2,30 per cent in 1969 to 1,95 per cent in 1978, while the percentage teachers with a senior certificate rose from 8,25 per cent in 1969 to 12,71 per cent in 1978.

TABLE 3.17 TRANSKEI - TEACHERS ACCORDING TO SEX AND AGE, 1978

AGE GROUP	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL	PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL
- 29 years	1308	5097	6405	46
30 - 39 years	690	2374	3064	22
40 - 49 years	772	1751	2523	18
50 - 59 years	825	829	1654	12
60+ years	223	117	340	2
TOTAL	3818	10168	13986	
PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL	27	73		100

Source: Information supplied by the Transkei Department of Education

More than two-thirds of the teachers are younger than 30 years. Since this group will still be in the teaching profession for a long time and a large percentage of them have low qualifications, in-service training is a necessity. In the absence of in-service training the education of many pupils will be disadvantaged for a long period to come.

3.6 PRIMARY EDUCATION

As was mentioned before, only 3 per cent of the population of the country were urbanised. As a result of the Government policy of providing education for the whole population, there are at present more than 2 000 primary and combined primary and junior secondary schools which are distributed reasonably evenly throughout the country in accordance with the population distribution. This distribution is indicated in Table 3.7. Approximately half the schools are combined primary and junior secondary schools which provide education from Sub A to Standard seven.

There is no compulsory education in Transkei as yet. As a first step in this direction the Department of Education intends to require parents who enrol their children in Sub A to sign an agreement to ensure that their children will attend school for at least four years (Transkei National Assembly, 1977, p. 150). In his budget speech of 1978 the Minister of Education mentioned that compulsory education had of necessity to be linked with free education (Transkei Department of Education, 1978, p. 2) and in his budget speech of the following year the Minister declared that Transkei did not have the funds to introduce free education (Transkei Department of Education, 1979, p. 36). He also mentioned that before compulsory education was introduced it would be necessary to determine the number of school-age pupils who were not attending school, as well as the reasons for this situation, and whether there were sufficient physical facilities. Furthermore the community would have to be informed and educated in connection with compulsory education (Transkei Department of Education, 1978, p. 2). Table 3.10 indicates that practically 100 per cent of the children between seven and ten years of age are already attending school. According to Table 3.6 a very large percentage of the pupils in the primary school.

are above the normal age as a result of various factors. If this can be corrected the number of pupils per teacher in the primary school can be decreased from the present 64 to 54 pupils per teacher.

The goals of primary education are firstly basic literacy of the whole population and secondly the laying of foundations which will enable the child to develop his potential fully and continuously (Transkei Department of Education, 1966b, pp. 1 - 2; see Transkei Department of Education, 1979, pp. 1 - 2; Transkei National Assembly, 1977, p. 153). This development would benefit the child as well as the community of which he is a member and should take place in humble recognition of his dependence on God. An important implication of the principle that the primary school does not aim at a completed educational programme, but that only the foundations are laid for further education, is that there should be a connection between primary and secondary education. This connection or continuity is disadvantaged because many pupils are unable to continue their primary education at secondary schools as the secondary schools are not within walking distance and there are no boarding or transport facilities for junior secondary schools. The continuity between the primary and secondary schools is also harmed because in the primary schools the Transkeian syllabus is followed, whereas in the secondary schools the syllabi of the Department of Education and Training were followed until 1978. Since 1979 the syllabi of the Cape Department of Education have been followed in secondary schools.

In the lower primary phase (the first three years) the following subjects are offered: Mother-tongue (Xhosa or South Sotho), English, Mathematics, Health Education, Art and Craft, Writing, Music and Singing, Religious Education and Physical Education. In the higher primary phase Art and

Craft and Writing are discontinued, while History, Geography and General Science are added, as well as Agricultural Science for the boys and Needlework for the girls (Transkei Department of Education, 1966b; Transkei Department of Education, 1975). There is uncertainty regarding the position of Afrikaans in the primary school. According to a departmental circular of 18 December 1978 from 1979 no Afrikaans would be offered from Sub A to Standard four (Transkei Department of Education, Circular No. 50/1978). This decision was, however, revoked and the matter is now being reconsidered.

As was the case with the question of the medium of instruction in the primary schools, the question of syllabi for the primary school led to lengthy and lively discussions in the Legislative Assembly of the Transkei (Transkei Legislative Assembly, 1965, pp. 162 - 172; 1966, pp. 141 - 157). The impression is gained from these discussions that the educational system is reduced to syllabi. On recommendation of a chosen parliamentary committee the Cape syllabi, with some adaptations, were followed in Transkeian primary schools from 1965. These syllabi were submitted to the principals for commentary so that the final product could be considered as learning matter compiled by Transkeians for Transkeians (Transkei Legislative Assembly, 1966, pp. 153 - 154).

The adaptation to Transkeian conditions were not carried far enough for fear that it would resemble the Bantu Education Policy. The result is that the final product is riddled with contradictions. The following examples serve as illustration:

- The primary school curriculum makes provision for Afrikaans from Standard one, whereas the syllabus commences at Sub A (as in the Cape Province) (Transkei Department of Education, 1966b, pp. 3, 24 - 29).

- The syllabus for Geography starts as follows: "Our Country: The Republic of South Africa with Special reference to the Cape Province" (Transkei Department of Education, 1976, p. 80). No reference is made to the geography of Transkei.
- The objective, contents and time allocation for Afrikaans is the same as for English. However, English must be used as medium of instruction from Standard three, whereas this is not the objective with the teaching of Afrikaans. The academic standard to be reached in these two subjects is, however, the same.

In the lower primary classes promotion to the next standard is automatic. However, the principal may hold back pupils who are not progressing satisfactorily, with the permission of the inspector. Table 3.12 indicates that more than 10 per cent of the pupils in 1977 from Sub A to Standard one were repeaters. In the higher primary classes promotion to the following standard occurs on merit, based on tests during the year and an internal examination at the end of the year. In some circuits the same examination paper is written in all schools at the end of Standard four. This examination paper is compiled by the inspector in co-operation with teachers in his circuit. It is marked internally and moderated by the inspector. About 14 per cent of the higher primary pupils in 1977 were repeaters.

3.7 SECONDARY EDUCATION

The primary schools which provided education up to Standard six until 1974, were from 1975 classified as junior secondary schools by the addition of Standard seven and thus extended from Sub A to Standard seven. In this manner partial relief was obtained for the bottleneck which existed between primary and secondary schools and secondary education was brought within reach of the greater portion of the population (Transkei Legislative

Assembly, 1974, p. 141; 1975, p. 153). As the result of this arrangement the number of secondary schools increased from 83 in 1974 to 1 086 in 1975, of which 1 003 were junior secondary schools. The number of pupils in the secondary schools increased from 30 000 in 1974 to 92 000 in 1975.

This upgrading was fraught with many problems (Transkei National Assembly, 1977, p. 149). In 1978 the Minister of Education mentioned the following in his policy speech: "My department has come to realise that the introduction of Standards five, six and seven in the same campus with Sub Standards A to Standard four was a big mistake. There are far too many miniature Standard seven classes with pupils not exceeding 15 all over the country. The result has been the most uneconomic distribution of teachers at these mini-schools" (Transkei Department of Education, 1978, p. 119). It was then decided to transfer the Standard seven classes at junior secondary schools which were close to senior secondary schools to the latter schools and not to consider further applications for the extension of primary schools to include junior secondary classes.

Many of the principals and almost all of the teachers of the upgraded junior secondary schools were in possession of only a Junior Certificate and a Primary Teachers' Certificate. The salary of a principal of a junior secondary school is higher than that of a graduate teacher in a senior secondary school (Transkei Department of Education, Circular No. 12/1978) with the result that an exodus of graduate and well-qualified teachers from senior secondary schools took place (Transkei National Assembly, 1977, p. 149). The standard of teaching at the junior secondary schools is extremely low because the teachers are not adequately qualified and because class teaching instead of subject teaching is mostly

practised (Transkei National Assembly, 1977, p. 149). In order to find a solution to these problems it was decided that principals who did not have the necessary academic qualifications would be substituted by principals who had at least matriculated and possessed teaching qualifications. In order to check the flow of teachers from senior secondary schools it is being considered to increase the salaries of graduate teachers and to create senior assistant posts in senior secondary schools.

Regarding examination the position is as follows: at the end of Standard seven an external examination of the Transkeian Department of Education is written. The main function of this examination is to select pupils uniformly for admission to the senior secondary school. Up to 1978 the external examination of the Department of Education and Training of the Republic of South Africa was written at the end of Standard eight. From 1979 this examination will be dealt with by the Transkeian Education Department. The Junior Certificate which is obtained by passing this examination serves as an admission requirement for further specialised training, such as nursing, primary school teaching and trade training. It is also considered to be a minimum educational qualification by many employers and further serves as a final selection of pupils who wish to obtain the Senior Certificate. At the end of Standard ten an external examination of the Department of National Education of the Republic of South Africa is written. This certificate may be obtained with or without university admission. An inevitable result of the many external examinations is that education tends to be examination-centred instead of child-centred. As a means of selecting and placing and of bringing education up to standard and in view of the large percentage of teachers with low educational qualifications, external examinations remain a necessary emergency aid (see Ruperti, 1974, p. 107).

In the junior secondary phase there is very little differentiation of learning contents. There is thus practically no choice of subjects. Essentially the same subjects are offered as in the senior primary schools, namely Religious Education, Mother-Tongue, Afrikaans, English, Mathematics, General Science, Social Studies (History and Geography) as well as a practical subject which is usually Agricultural Science for boys and Needlework for girls. In some schools Typing is offered as a practical subject and Accountancy instead of Social Studies from Standard six. At the Umtata Technical College a technical secondary course from Standard six to Standard ten is offered. Pupils take Technical Drawing and either Woodwork or Metalwork from Standard six instead of Social Studies and Agricultural Science. The Department plans to institute similar technical education within the next five years at ten more junior secondary schools and ten senior secondary schools (Earl, personal interview, 11 July 1978). Junior secondary schools will then make use of the facilities of neighbouring senior secondary schools. The cost per combined junior secondary and senior secondary school will be R85 000 in 1980 (Transkei Department of Education, Departmental file 6/1/12/3). In the senior secondary phase differentiation is of a dual nature. Firstly a selection may be made from various subjects and secondly a subject may be taken at the higher grade or the standard grade. The contents and standards of the subjects are the same as in the various provinces and for the various population groups in the Republic of South Africa. As was mentioned before, the final examination (Standard ten) of the Department of National Education is written, which falls under the jurisdiction of the Joint Matriculation Board controlling examination and university admission. This Board exercises strict

control over the syllabi and standards (see Behr and Macmillan, 1971, pp. 188 - 189). University admission is determined by subject choice, a minimum percentage in the grand total and a minimum number of subjects passed at higher grade and standard grade. The Senior Certificate may be obtained with or without university admission. Although in theory many subjects may be taken for the National Senior Certificate, in practice the subjects are usually limited to six or seven of the following: Mother-tongue, English, Afrikaans (these three compulsory), Mathematics, Physical Science, Biology, History, Geography, Biblical Studies, Agricultural Science, Domestic Science, and one or more commercial or technical subjects.

A special problem in the senior secondary schools is the shortage of qualified teachers of Mathematics and Physical Science and the lack of equipped laboratories. The Minister of Education mentioned in his policy speech that "these two (subjects) seem to be regarded as a nightmare by both teacher and pupil in our schools" (Transkei Legislative Assembly, 1976, p. 266). Only 39 of the approximately 14 000 teachers in 1978 had a B.Sc. degree and many of these teachers had only passed Mathematics at the first year level. The low standard of the teaching of Physical Science and especially Mathematics deters pupils from obtaining pass marks in these subjects with the result that they cannot continue their studies at a university. For many university faculties a pass in Mathematics is an admission requirement. The Department is trying to solve this problem by the introduction of in-service training courses and by recruiting teachers abroad (Transkei National Assembly, 1977, p.150). All new secondary schools being built include equipped laboratories (Transkei Legislative Assembly, 1976, p. 266). Furthermore,

merit bursaries are awarded to Standard seven pupils to continue their education at St. John's College which has well-equipped laboratories and qualified personnel. In 1976 the Department considered allowing only one senior secondary school per inspection circuit to offer Mathematics and Physical Science as subjects. This would enable the Department to equip these few schools effectively and to provide them with suitable personnel. As the result of strong opposition from the parents and teachers this proposal could not be implemented. As an alternative it was decided that pupils who took Mathematics and Physical Science were also to take Agricultural Science as a seventh subject to ensure a pass mark in case they failed Mathematics and Physical Science in the final examination (Transkei National Assembly, 1977, p. 150).

In addition to the above-mentioned provision for differentiation within certain schools and the technical high school in Umtata where technical and commercial subjects are offered, there is also a school for the sons of chiefs at Tsolo. Apart from the normal school subjects also Indigenous Law, Indigenous Administration and World Events are offered at this school. The purpose of a special school for the sons of chiefs is to equip them for their future administrative duties as chiefs and headmen.

An analysis of the statistics in Section 3.5.5 indicates that 10 per cent of the pupils in Standard five and six are repeaters. In Standard seven and eight where external examinations are written this figure is considerably higher than 20 per cent. The pupil-teacher ratio is low (25:1), but the teachers have not had sufficient training to undertake secondary education. For the more than 100 000 junior secondary and 33 000 senior secondary pupils there are only 272 graduate teachers and 1 777 matriculated teachers.

In closing it may be pointed out that many of the problems that were encountered with the change to the (3 + 3) + (3 + 3) school phase structure originated because there was insufficient co-ordination between the various educational institutions and because a change in one aspect of the educational system, namely the school system, influences various other aspects of the educational system which were not taken into account. For the same reason unforeseen problems were also experienced when changes were introduced regarding the control of schools, medium of instruction, examination and syllabi. Since the educational system is correlatively integrated with the community, the problems caused by unplanned and unco-ordinated changes are not restricted to education - in time they become socio-economic problems.

3.8 TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

By the middle of last century at the instance of the missionaries as well as the Cape Colonial Government a beginning was made with trade training in Transkei. The problems experienced at that time were still features of this type of education a century later, namely that it was an expensive course and that it was considered inferior in comparison with academic education, that there was a shortage of qualified teachers, and that there were not always enough job opportunities for those who had completed their training.

As was mentioned before, in Transkei technical secondary education from Standard six to Standard eight is offered at the Umtata Technical College. In two years' time this course will extend to Standard ten. Vocational training is offered at Teko (Butterworth), Ngqungqushe (Lusikisiki) and Umtata Technical College. At Teko there is also an industrial training centre which is financed partially by a private firm.

Here courses of 13 weeks in welding and trades related to building are offered to unskilled and semi-skilled workers. The Umtata Technical College also offers block release courses for apprentices (personal interviews with: Van der Merwe, 2 May 1979; Seoka, 26 July 1979; Earl, 11 July 1978; Slater, 11 July 1978). Table 3.18 shows the enrolment at these institutions from 1977 - 1978.

The courses for motor mechanics and electricians last three years with Standard eight as admission requirement. The other courses last two years with Standard seven as admission requirement. At the end of each study year the external examinations of the Department of National Education of South Africa are written. This Department also issues the certificates - National Technical Certificate Part I, II and III. The following subjects are offered:

Trade Theory I, II, III,

Technical or Building Drawing I, II, III

Applied Science I, II, III

Mathematics I, II, III

Practical work (Trade Practice) I, II, III

A student who has an N.T.C. III (National Technical Certificate, Part III) may obtain a Technical Senior Certificate by the addition of two official languages. An N.T.C. III also serves as an admission requirement for further study at a College for Advanced Technical Training. If a student registers as an apprentice on the completion of his vocational training, his minimum period of apprenticeship is reduced by six months for every completed year of study at a vocational training school.

TABLE 3.18 TRANSKEI - ENROLMENT AT TRADE SCHOOLS, 1977 - 1979

COURSES		TRADE SCHOOL NGQUNGQUSHE			TECHNICAL COLLEGE UMTATA			TRADE SCHOOL TEKO			TOTAL		
		1977	1978	1979	1977	1978	1979	1977	1978	1979	1977	1978	1979
Motor Mechanics	I	18	15	16	21	20	14	20	20	18	59	55	48
	II	16	13	14	16	14	11	17	15	15	51	42	40
	III	9	17	12	14	14	11	16	17	16	39	48	39
Electricians	I				19	15	13				19	15	13
	II				18	6	11				18	6	11
	III										-	-	-
Concreting, bricklaying and plastering	I	20	19	18				17	20	14	37	39	32
	II	17	19	6				9	13	18	26	32	24
Plumbing	I	17	15	16							17	15	16
	II	19	10	7							19	10	7
Carpentry & Joinery	I	17	19	20	17	20	15	19	18	15	53	57	50
	II	15	16	9	17	13	8	10	16	8	42	45	25
Motor-body repairs	I					12	11				-	12	11
	II						3				-	-	3
Tailoring	I							12	5	11	12	5	11
	II							8	8	4	8	8	4
	III							9	8	9	9	8	9
TRADE TRAINING SUBTOTAL		150	143	118	122	114	97	137	140	128	409	397	343
Technical Std 6					53	60	62				53	60	62
" 7						40	41				-	40	41
" 8							17				-	-	17
Commercial Std 7					108						108	-	-
" 8					80	140	125				80	140	125
" 9					54	99	106				54	99	106
" 10					25	45	64				25	45	64
Industrial Training									45	61	-	45	61
Leatherwork*	I				2						2	-	-
	II					2					-	2	-
TOTAL		150	143	118	444	500	512	137	185	189	731	828	819

*Discontinued in 1979.

Source: Information supplied by the Transkei Department of Education.

The training of apprentices falls under the Minister of Internal Affairs and is regulated by the Transkeian Act on Apprentices, Act No. 10 of 1975. The practical training is undertaken by the employer. As has been mentioned before, block release courses for the theoretical part of the course are offered at the Umtata Technical College. The examination which is written in the theoretical part of the course, is the same as is written by full-time students of vocational schools. A pass mark in the theoretical subjects is not a requirement for taking the final vocational test for artisan status. This test is taken at the trade test centre at Babalegi in the Republic of Bophuthatswana.

Specific deficiencies which exist are a shortage of qualified artisans who are able to train apprentices and a need for a training centre for practical work where apprentices may receive intensive training with a view to taking the final vocational test. Only a very small percentage of the pupils who are interested in technical or vocational training can be accommodated with the existing facilities.

Vocational training for girls is offered in Home Management at Lourdes and in Dressmaking at Clarkebury. Both courses last two years after Standard seven. The syllabi of the Department of Education and Training of the Republic of South Africa are followed. The Transkei Department of Education manages the examination and issues the certificates. At Lourdes there were 13 students in 1978 and 10 students in 1979, whereas 19 students in 1978 and 18 students in 1979 were enrolled at Clarkebury. About half of the students were first year students and half second year students. A private school under the control of the

Anglican Church offers a three-year course in spinning and weaving. Enrolments at this school (St Cuthberts) were 33 first year students, 29 second year students and 23 third year students in 1979.

3.9 SPECIAL EDUCATION

For handicapped pupils education is provided at two institutions. At Ikwezi Lokusa education for the cerebral palsied has been provided since 1958. This is a subsidized,private school controlled by the Roman Catholic Church. The syllabi are basically the same as in normal schools with special emphasis on practical subjects (The Republic of Transkei, 1976, pp. 89 - 91).

For the deaf and the blind there is the Efata School which is also a subsidized, private school (Van der Poel, 1979). It was opened in 1957 and is controlled by the Dutch Reformed Church. The running cost per pupil is very high (about R1 000 per pupil per year) of which 95 per cent is financed by the Transkei Government. The blind follow the normal syllabus up to Standard seven, while an adapted syllabus is used for the deaf, because of their deficient language development. An important objective of the school is the integration of school leavers into the community. For this purpose, practical subjects are incorporated in the syllabus, while there is also an after-care section which trains pupils further in spinning, weaving and sewing. A further extension of Efata is the provision of sheltered labour through separate independent enterprises such as Efata Builders. Attempts are also made by means of radio talks and invitations to visit the institution to inform and educate the public about the integration of the deaf and blind into the community.

Enough educational facilities do not exist for handicapped pupils and many applicants must be turned away.

In Table 3.19 the teaching personnel and the pupil enrolment for special education for 1971 - 1978 are shown.

TABLE 3.19 TRANSKEI - SPECIAL EDUCATION, TEACHERS AND PUPIL ENROLMENT, 1971 - 1978

	PUPILS				TEACHERS		
	EFATA DEAF	EFATA BLIND	IKWEZI LOKUSA	TOTAL	EFATA	IKWEZI LOKUSA	TOTAL
1971	161	89	122	372	21	10	31
1972	165	90	122	377	21	10	31
1973	165	90	135	390	35	17	52
1974	200	100	135	435	32	17	49
1975	200	100	135	435	32	17	49
1976	178	101	164	443	35	20	55
1977	200	94	187	481	34	21	55
1978	198	96	184	478	35	20	55

Source: Transkei Department of Education, 1971 - 1977. Information for 1978 supplied by the Transkei Department of Education.

3.10 TRAINING OF TEACHERS

In the 1965 report of the Transkei Department of Education the shortage of qualified teachers is mentioned as one of the main restrictive factors in education (Transkei Department of Education, 1965, pp. 1, 6,7). Fourteen years later this is still the case as is apparent from the policy speeches of the Minister of Education in 1978 (Transkei Department of Education, 1978, pp. 1 - 6, 23) and 1979 (Transkei Department of Education, 1979, pp. 5 - 6, 23, 28). During the past ten years the number of pupils per teacher declined from 60 to 50, but more than 80 per cent of the teachers possessed only a Junior Certificate (Standard

eight) and a two-year teachers' diploma.

The training of teachers is done at nine training schools which are spread throughout the country. The enrolment of students by course and year of study is shown in Table 3.20. The primary teachers' course at Butterworth was discontinued at the end of 1978 and the same course at Maluti will be discontinued at the end of 1979. These training schools will then only offer the junior secondary teachers' course.

Of the 2 522 students in the primary teachers' course in 1978, 2 076 were girls and 446 boys. At only two of the training schools this course is offered to boys and girls alike. The other training schools offer this course only to girls.

The minimum admission requirement for the primary teachers' course is Standard eight (Junior Certificate). However, most pupils who do well in Standard eight continue their studies in order to obtain a Senior Certificate, with the result that many of the academically weaker pupils are trained as teachers for the primary school. Many pupils who possess a Senior Certificate and are interested in primary education as a career cannot take the course for lack of money and because bursaries for this course are not available. Weaker candidates who have only Junior Certificates but can afford the course are thus given preference.

The course lasts two years and includes the following groups of subjects: basic subjects (English, Afrikaans, Indigenous Language and Arithmetic), professional subjects, practical subjects, background subjects and content subjects (General Science, Social Studies and Health Education). Part of the course is examined externally by the Department of Education and Training of the Republic of South Africa who also prescribes the syllabi.

TABLE 3.20 TRANSKEI - TEACHER TRAINING, ENROLMENT BY COURSE AND YEAR OF STUDY AT DIFFERENT TRAINING SCHOOLS, 1976 - 1978

	PRIMARY TEACHERS' COURSE						JUNIOR SECONDARY TEACHERS' COURSE						TOTAL		
	FIRST YEAR			SECOND YEAR			FIRST YEAR			SECOND YEAR					
	1976	1977	1978	1976	1977	1978	1976	1977	1978	1976	1977	1978	1976	1977	1978
Arthur Tsengiwe	155	154	167	125	130	147							280	284	314
Bensonvale	234	177	140	177	192	149							411	369	289
Butterworth	189	166	-	127	170	167			184				316	336	351
Cicira	-	-	-	-	-	-	116	167	166	107	134	162	223	301	328
Clarkebury	372	191	299	318	130	184							690	321	483
Maluti	156	139	182	109	148	127							265	287	309
Mt.Arthur	63	124	87	43	92	90							106	216	177
Shawbury	163	150	163	130	142	139							293	292	302
Sigcau	230	170	275	157	227	206							387	397	481
	1562	1271	1313	1186	1231	1209	116	167	350	107	134	162	2971	2803	3034

Source: Transkei Department of Education, 1976/77, p. 12. Information for 1978 supplied by the Transkei Department of Education

The junior secondary teachers' course also lasts two years and is examined basically in the same manner as the primary teachers' course. The admission requirement is a Senior Certificate with a pass in the subject in which the student wishes to specialize. There are five different directions in which to specialize:

- Afrikaans, English, Xhosa, History and Geography
- General Science and Mathematics
- Accountancy, Typing, Economics, Business Economics
- Needlework and Domestic Science
- General Science and Agricultural Science

Apart from the specialization subjects which are examined externally, the students also take professional and background subjects which are examined internally.

The course was initially designed to train teachers for Standards six to eight. As the junior secondary phase introduced in 1975 consists of Standards five to seven, the intention is to train teachers for these standards. Due to the shortage of teachers in the senior secondary schools, many teachers who took the junior secondary teachers' course are teaching Standard eight, nine and even Standard ten classes.

Bursaries of about R250 per year are awarded to all students who take this course. This amount covers the student's boarding fees, books and direct study costs such as examination and registration fees, teaching aids, etc. The salaries of teachers at training schools are the same as at secondary schools, with the result that the provision of personnel has become a serious problem.

An important shortcoming of the junior secondary teachers' course is that it lacks continuity for further study. A student who wishes to continue his studies after completion of this course, can only enrol

as a first year student at a university. No acknowledgement is given for subjects passed at the training school. In 1977 an attempt was made to give continuity to the course and at the same time to overcome the shortage of senior secondary teachers by the introduction of a one-year senior secondary teachers' course which succeeded the junior secondary teachers' course. There was, however, little interest in the course and it was discontinued at the end of the same year.

It is planned to place all teacher training under the protection and partial control of the University of Transkei (Transkei Department of Education, 1979, p. 23). The University started in 1979 with a Faculty of Education which will initially offer only a B.Ed. degree, the post-graduate Teachers' Diploma and a three-year Senior Secondary Teachers' Diploma. In 1977 and 1978 the Department of Education awarded 30 bursaries to teachers who already had the Junior Secondary Teachers' Certificate, in order to enrol for four first year courses in school subjects at the University of Transkei.

A permanent in-service training centre for teachers is a necessity since the academic qualifications of teachers are inadequate and also because the syllabi and teaching methods have changed greatly over the past five to ten years (see K-N-N Commission, 1973, pp. 87, 103; Transkei Department of Education, 1979, p. 9; Transkei Legislative Assembly, 1976, p. 267). Where the need was greatest, as in the case of Mathematics and Science, in-service training was undertaken by school inspectors.

3.11 UNIVERSITY TRAINING

In 1975 a branch of the University of Fort Hare was established in Umtata and commenced its academic activities the following year. Since 1 January

1977 it has been an autonomous independent university as was decreed by the University Act of Transkei (Act No 23 of 1976) (University of Transkei, 1979, p. 5). In the first year of its existence the University of Transkei provided education in two faculties, namely Commerce and Administration and Arts. Of the 294 registered students 288 were part-time students (Transkei Department of Education, 1976/77, p. 27). In 1978 the Faculty of Sciences and in 1979 the Faculties of Education and Law were added (University of Transkei, 1979, p. 5). The academic personnel consists of 52 full-time lecturers (University of Transkei, 1979, pp. 10 - 13). At the first graduation ceremony of the university in 1979, 14 B.A. degrees were conferred. Up to the end of 1979 temporary buildings will be used. The new university building will be put into use in 1980 when the first building phase will have been completed at an estimated cost of R26 000 000. This includes hostel facilities for 480 students. The cost of the second phase is estimated at R31 000 000 (Transkei Department of Education, 1978, p.9). The growth of the university will probably be retarted by a shortage of capital for physical facilities (Transkei Department of Education, 1979, p. 44).

The number of students has increased rapidly from 294 in 1977 to 659 in 1979 of whom most were studying part-time. Table 3.21 shows the student enrolment from 1977 - 1979.

TABLE 3.21 STUDENT ENROLMENT AT THE UNIVERSITY OF TRANSKEI ACCORDING TO SEX AND COURSE OF STUDY 1977 - 1979

FACULTY		1977	1978	1979
Arts	M	144	167	154
	F	54	77	104
	T	198	244	258
Commerce and Administration	M	68	116	131
	F	28	42	74
	T	96	158	205
Sciences	M		39	38
	F		34	55
	T		73	93
Education	M			23
	F			9
	T			32
Law	M			59
	F			12
	T			71
TOTAL	M	212	322	405
	F	82	153	254
	T	294	475	659

Source: Unpublished information supplied by the University of Transkei

3.12 ADULT EDUCATION

According to the 1970 census 56 per cent of the population had had no schooling. Only 30 per cent had had schooling lasting longer than three years (Benbo, 1975, p. 56). Due to the high dropout figures in the first four years of the primary school and the absence of compulsory education the number

of illiterates and semi-literates is increasing. As a result there is an over-supply of unskilled and semi-skilled workers on the labour market while at the same time a shortage of highly-skilled and technical manpower is being experienced (Transkei National Assembly, 1977, pp. 503 - 504). This retards the economic development of the country. The fact that a large percentage of parents are illiterate leads to estrangement between parents and the educated child. This estrangement is intensified as the school system and the learning contents are Western-orientated and do not correspond to the cultural background and home education of the child. The deficient or poor relationship between children and parents comes into being as the result of a so-called generation gap which results when children come into contact with Western values and culture while the parents have had little or no education (Van Schalkwyk, 1979, p. 463).

It is with these considerations as basis and also because education is considered to be "the birthright of every person ... not for a limited number of years, but throughout life" (Transkei Department of Education, 1979, p. 1) that the Department of Education accepts responsibility for adult education. Among other things, provision has been made for the registration of schools for adult education, the training of teachers for this purpose and the appointment of an educational planner for adult education (Transkei National Assembly, 1977, p. 152). So far emphasis has fallen on basic literacy which includes the following: a reading and writing knowledge of Xhosa, practical knowledge of English, Health Education, Arithmetic, the use and the completion of everyday commercial documents, Singing and Religion (Transkei National Assembly, 1977, p. 152). Certificates are issued after the successful completion of the course. In 1978 there were 112 schools for basic literacy for adults with an

enrolment of 1 220 of whom 980 passed. The year before (1977) 1 606 people enrolled of whom 1 033 passed (Transkei Department of Education, 1979, p. 19). At Umtata and Butterworth part-time classes after working hours are offered for the Junior and Senior Certificates. These courses are controlled by the Department of Education which is also responsible for the remuneration of the teachers. The subjects which are offered are mainly English, Typing and Accountancy.

There are also a few private schools (with a profit-making aim) which prepare pupils for the Junior and Senior Certificate examination. The standard of teaching in these schools is generally extremely low.

3.13 CLOSING REMARKS

In this chapter it was attempted to convey a complete and balanced picture of the present Transkeian educational system. Such a complete picture is necessary before problems and shortcomings can be examined closely. Attention was therefore given to various factors which in conjunction with individual ambitions and group ideals and motives structured the educational system of Transkei as an individual or particular system. The fact that the Transkeian educational system is a particular system with its unique problems for which solutions specifically related to the Transkeian educational system must be found, served as motivation for this study. (The absence of universal or generally valid solutions for problems in individual educational systems thus necessitates a complete study of individual educational systems.)

It was pointed out that the educational system is interwoven with various other social structures. Within this interweaving it should still be possible to typify the educational system as a principle-obedient pedagogical structure which integrates education freely in its own

capacity into the national culture and development needs of the country. Only then will the goals of the educational system be reached, namely to bring about in an organised and planned manner the development of the child (or whoever receives education) for his world and the world of reality, with a view to his vocation (Van Schalkwyk 1979, p. 472). That this is probably not the case is shown by implication by the shortcomings and deficiencies which were brought into view in this chapter.

At this stage the following are clear:

- The structuring of the Transkeian educational system took place anti-normatively and is still developing anti-normatively through the violation of the norms for cultural development.
- The educational system did not originate from the traditional ground motive of the nation. The development of the educational system was coupled with a shifting of the ground motive.
- The different social structures have not been sufficiently developed and differentiated and therefore the State plays a dominant role in education.
- Education is involved in the exaggerated ambition of the nation regarding material prosperity and equalization or integration with the Whites of South Africa.
- The determining factors which shaped the educational system of Transkei after its own character, have a clear connection with certain shortcomings and problems in the educational system.

The resulting problems are manifested in various forms such as high failure and dropout figures, low standard of teaching, rote memorization, a high pupil-teacher ratio, insufficient differentiated education, etc. In the following chapter these problems, shortcomings and needs are discussed in detail.

CHAPTER 4

NEEDS ASSESSMENT AND RECOMMENDATIONS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapters two and three it was indicated that over a period of one and a half centuries an individual system of education has come into being in Transkei as a separate social structure. During this development process the close relationship between pedagogical norms and the philosophical norms connected to the traditional ground motive which is the basic driving force behind all thought and action of the Transkeian people was mostly ignored. The ground motive of the more developed White community with whom the people were and still are in contact, dominated the development. Under the influence of particular local natural and cultural factors the Transkeian educational system as an individual or particular system has, however, acquired a unique character and structure which distinguishes it from all other systems of education.

Under pressure of a growing social demand for education for which there are only limited financial means available, an educational system has developed which is by no means free from problems and needs. Many problems at present experienced in the educational system of Transkei owe their origin to the fact that educational development has been dominated by the foreign ground motive of the Whites. As a result of the cultural differences between the Whites (who initiated the prevailing system of education) and the Transkeian people, the essential continuity between education in the home and education in the school is disrupted and this leads to many problems. Furthermore there are problems and needs which are directly related to the particular local determining factors, for example the language factor, economic factors and the structure, distribution, and growth of the population.

The structuring of any individual educational system is a human activity and is thus of necessity an imperfect undertaking. It is therefore possible that the development of the Transkeian educational system, as is the case with the systems of education of many other countries, has been anti-normative to a greater or lesser extent (see Ruperti, 1974, pp. 6-7; Stone, 1974, pp. 144-145). This anti-normative development will be manifested in the form of specific problems.

In the remainder of this chapter the problems, defiencies and needs of the educational system of Transkei will be analysed from two points of view. In the first place attention will be given to the quantative aspects where the need for teachers, classrooms, and financial means are deduced from estimations of the school population. Secondly follows a more qualitative analysis of problems and deficiencies experienced in the educational system on the strength of which certain recommendations will be made. The quantitative and qualitative aspects are, however, correlated and interrelated and may only be distinguished and not separated from each other. For example the high pupil-teacher ratio may be responsible for the poor standard of tuition and the failure of certain teaching methods may be ascribed to the wide range of age distribution.

An important aspect which requires consideration with regard to an analysis of the problems in the Transkeian educational system and recommendations to promote a solution of these problems, is that a system which considerably differs from White education departments of the Republic of South Africa will be regarded with suspicion and will not enjoy the support of the people of Transkei. This is especially true in the case of differences pertaining to subject content and standards. The reason for this reaction is fear that a different system would be inferior and that they (the Transkeians) would be isolated and denied economic, academic and ot-

her opportunities in the Republic of South Africa. According to this viewpoint a system of education which differs from that of the Whites of the Republic of South Africa would have the effect that the school, which they regard as a means of realising their ideals and ambitions, will in actual fact prevent them from attaining these very goals. In the Transkeian Legislative Assembly (during self-government) and Parliament (after independence) the former system of Bantu Education was often very sharply criticised and described as a system whereby inferior education desired to isolate the Transkeian people and to withhold them from the opportunities and privileges offered in the Republic (see Transkei Legislative Assembly, 1964, p. 89; 1965, p. 174; 1966, p. 145; 1976, p. 28; Transkei National Assembly, 1977, pp. 153, 159; Transkei Department of Education, 1979, pp. 5-6). Education should be viewed against the background of Transkei's economic dependence on the Republic of South Africa and moves in the past for the political integration of Transkei with the Republic of South Africa.

Subsequent to the acquisition of self-government in 1963 various attempts have been made in Transkei to move away from the system of Bantu Education, for example the abolition of School Boards and community schools, the use of English as a medium of instruction from Standard three, the introduction of syllabi of the Cape Department of Education and the termination of service contracts of education advisers seconded to Transkei by the Department of Education and Training (Transkei National Assembly, 1977, p. 153).

This fear of inferior education and the resultant isolation and frustration of socio-economic and political aspirations of the people is one of the most significant problems confronting educational planners and policy-makers. The changes already effected since self-government do not, however, solve the problems associated with Transkei's educational system. The pure-

ly Western system of education does not make provision for the large number of illiterates, the wide range of age difference among pupils in the same standard, and the large percentage of repeaters and early school leavers and the fact that a foreign language is used as a medium of instruction. These factors together with limited funds, rapid growth of the school population and specific manpower needs for socio-economic development in Transkei calls for a completely unique system of education suited to the situation.

The problems confronting Transkei with regard to the implementation of a Western system of education are similar to those experienced in other developing countries of the Third World (see Rose, 1970, pp. 3-11; De Wet, 1967, p. 52; Thut and Adams, 1964, pp. 434-456). D'Aeth sums up these problems as follows: "The aim of having fully developed Western-type of schooling was coming under double-fire: not only was it too expensive but also there was a growing criticism of the bookish schooling as being quite unsuited to predominantly agricultural societies, ignoring their language, literature, tradition and customs, in the broadest sense their culture ... Not infrequently it contributed to social breakdown, within families and communities, spreading restlessness and a lack of sense of belonging among the young. It produced too few skilled workers and yet in many countries at the same time produced too many secondary school leavers giving rise to serious unemployment. Too often education was dissociated from the needs of society" (D'Aeth, 1975, p. 12).

These detrimental effects due to the adoption without adaptation of a Western system of educationare practically without exception applicable to Transkei. The solution is, however, not as obvious as in the case of the majority of other developing countries, owing to the fact that the political and socio-

economic ambitions of Transkeians are not confined to the boundaries of Transkei. An educational system should be envisaged which, on the one hand, is compatible with local conditions, cultural factors and socio-economic requirements of Transkei, while on the other hand it provides freedom to utilise the material advantages and educational opportunities offered in the Republic of South Africa. To accomplish this development, co-operation between the Transkei Department of Education and the educational departments and institutions of the Republic of South Africa is essential. This co-operation is further essential since Transkei lacks financial means, staff and facilities for differentiated advanced technical and tertiary education. This differentiated education and training in various fields is essential for the economic growth and development of the country, but the small number of students required in certain courses of study does not justify the high capital outlay involved. It would, therefore, seem more advantageous if Transkei were to make use of certain educational facilities in the Republic of South Africa - a step that requires co-operation and liaison with the educational institutions in the Republic of South Africa.

4.2 FORECASTS AND SOME IMPLICATIONS OF THE ENROLMENT INCREASE

The future development of an educational system is influenced to a large extent by the number of pupils which will be in the system in the future. The future needs regarding the provision of educational facilities cannot be calculated before the estimated future pupil enrolment is known. Pupil enrolment figures provide the foundation for the calculation of the implications for the number of teachers, the number and type of facilities needed and the economic implications for the provision of the above-mentioned.

An investigation into aspects which describe future pupil enrolment and

some implications thereof, can be done in the following manner:

- an estimate of the future demand for primary and secondary education on the basis of the expected enrolment;
- an estimate of the need for teachers on the basis of the pupil-teacher ratio;
- an estimate of the need for physical facilities in the light of the expected future pupil enrolment;
- an estimate of the budgeted expenditure on education on the basis of the average expenditure per pupil of past years.

Forecasts of enrolment do not include students involved in teacher training. The most important reason for their omission is that the number of students who receive such training is not necessarily statistically calculable in advance. The provision of teacher training facilities and the number of students involved in such training are dependent to a greater degree upon the policy of the educational authorities. The number of students who receive teacher training in any case comprises only a very small percentage of the total enrolment in Transkei. The omission of these figures from the forecasts of the pupil enrolment will have only a nominal effect on the eventual estimates.

4.2.1 Methodology for the forecasts of enrolment

The forecasts of the primary and secondary enrolment were done by the Research Unit for Education System Planning of the University of the Orange Free State. The forecasts are based on the historical trend of enrolment from 1969 to 1978. Two graphs (a linear curve and a parabola) of which

the equations were of the form $y = a + bx$ and $y = a + bx + cx^2$ respectively, were repeatedly adapted to every set of historical data. Enrolment was taken as the dependent variable (y) in the equation. The expected future enrolment was obtained by repeatedly replacing the independent variable (x) with the future year in the equations of both graphs. In other words, two alternative figures were calculated in each case.

Graphs that indicate the historic trend and future expectation with regard to enrolment for every standard, every school phase and for the total primary and secondary school population, were drawn by a computer. These graphs represent the historic trend and the forecast according to the linear curve and parabola - in other words, three graphs were drawn on each axis system.

It was decided to make separate forecasts for all the standards and school phases for a short term only. These forecasts, therefore, extend only to 1983. The estimate error increases as the estimate period lengthens. All the forecasts were made with the assumption that the general historic trend of enrolment will continue for at least the period of the forecast.

The graph that gave the most realistic estimate in each case, was selected. It was done by accepting the alternative that showed the smallest deviation from the actual trend. In some cases specific factors were the reasons that neither the linear curve nor the parabola fitted. A weighted average was then usually calculated to represent a value between the two graphs.

This approach has many limitations because it is based on historic trends which will not necessarily continue. By limiting the forecasts to the shorter term, however, educational planners may get a clear indication of the number of pupils that can be expected in the school system. Such data

form the foundation for further estimates and planning.

4.2.2 Forecasts of the primary and secondary enrolment

a. The lower primary phase

A large portion of the school population is to be found in the lower primary school phase, in other words from Sub A to Standard one. The percentage of pupils in this phase is decreasing gradually in relation to the rest of the school population. On the one hand this can be attributed to the increasing importance that the population attaches to the other school phases, and on the other hand it results from the fact that the largest part of the population between the ages of seven to ten years is already attending school (see Table 3.10 for the percentage of the population already at school). Nearly the total potential pupil population for the lower primary phase, that is the seven, eight and nine year olds, are at school. The tendency to place greater emphasis upon the higher school phases is expected to continue in the near future.

In 1969 more than 57 per cent of the primary and secondary pupils were in Sub A to Standard one.(At that time the lower primary phase included Standard two also). By 1976 this figure had decreased to 56 per cent and by 1978 to 52,8 per cent. However, this does not mean that the actual enrolment has decreased. There still is a fairly large annual increase in lower primary enrolment and according to the forecasts the 1978 figure of 359 723 pupils may increase to 412 000 in 1983.

The forecasts of the lower primary enrolment were made for every individual standard in the phase, as well as for the phase as a whole. The sum total

of the forecasts in every individual standard was then compared and adjusted to the forecast for the phase as a whole.

A decline in the increase of enrolment had the result that a descending parabolic curve corresponded well to the historic data. A similar basic trend is noticeable in all the individual standards and therefore also in the lower primary forecast as a whole. Taking the above-mentioned factors into consideration, the forecasts were made as they appear in Table 4.1.

TABLE 4.1 TRANSKEI - FORECASTS OF THE LOWER PRIMARY ENROLMENT UNTIL 1983

STANDARD YEAR	SUB A	SUB B	STANDARD 1	TOTAL
1978[x]	167 531	103 045	89 147	359 723
1979	172 700	106 000	91 300	370 000
1980	177 900	109 500	93 400	380 800
1981	183 100	113 000	95 500	391 600
1982	188 000	116 000	97 800	401 800
1983	193 000	119 000	100 000	412 000

x Unpublished data supplied by the Transkei Department of Education.

b. The higher primary phase

More or less 27,4 per cent of the primary and secondary school population are in the higher primary phase which extends from Standard two to Standard four. This is only 0,8 per cent fewer than the 28,2 per cent that enrolled for the corresponding standards in 1975. The number of pupils did, however, increase from 112 555 in 1969 to 186 698 in 1978.

The forecasts for the various standards in the higher primary phase individually and for the higher primary phase as a whole were made according to the linear curve, with the possibility of a decline at the end of the forecast period. Table 4.2 shows the forecasts of the pupil enrolment in the higher primary phase until 1983.

TABLE 4.2 TRANSKEI - FORECASTS OF THE HIGHER PRIMARY ENROLMENT UNTIL 1983

STANDARD YEAR	STANDARD 2	STANDARD 3	STANDARD 4	TOTAL
1978*	72 874	63 919	49 905	186 698
1979	75 200	66 000	51 500	192 700
1980	77 800	68 800	53 800	200 400
1981	80 300	71 200	56 000	207 500
1982	82 500	73 600	58 500	214 600
1983	85 000	76 000	61 000	222 000

* Unpublished data supplied by the Transkei Department of Education.

c. The secondary school phase

The secondary school phase extends from Standard five to Standard ten and it is subdivided into the junior secondary and senior secondary phases. The pupil enrolment trends for these two phases are so similar that no distinction is necessary for the purposes of this forecast.

A relatively small portion of the total school population is present in the secondary school phase. The increase in secondary enrolment is, however, taking place much faster than in the other school phases and it can even

be stated that there is a pupil explosion in the secondary school phase in Transkei.

Since 1969 when 55 840 or 14 per cent of all primary and secondary pupils were enrolled in secondary standards, according to the present grouping, secondary enrolment more than doubled to 135 200 in 1978. This represents 19,8 per cent of the total enrolment. The reason for the rapid increase in the secondary enrolment can be attributed mainly to two factors:

- The individual demand for secondary education has increased rapidly. In the past pupils were content with a primary school qualification. This situation has changed considerably and more and more pupils demand access to secondary education.

- At the end of 1975 Standard six was removed from the school system of Transkei. Although this simply meant that the total number of school years was reduced and it took place within the then higher primary phase, this step also influenced individual standards in the secondary phase. Pupils who were in Standard five and Standard six in 1975, had to be accommodated in the subsequent standard (then Form I). This resulted in a wave effect which annually flowed to the following standard and which should influence the Standard ten enrolment in 1980.

There is great pressure for the provision of secondary education in Transkei and in the immediate future there will be no real relief in this respect. According to the forecasts secondary enrolment on the short term will continue at the present rate.

The forecasts of the secondary enrolment were made according to the parabola which indicates that pupil enrolment will still increase rapidly until 1983.

However, an adjustment was necessary to make provision for the wave effect. After the required adjustment had been made, the forecasts were made as they appear in Table 4.3.

TABLE 4.3 TRANSKEI - FORECASTS OF THE SECONDARY ENROLMENT UNTIL 1983

STD. YEAR	Std.5	Std.6	Std.7	Std.8	Std.9	Std.10	TOTAL
1978*	38 218	32 662	30 684	21 194	7 559	4 883	135 200
1979	40 000	35 000	32 000	23 100	9 000	5 400	144 500
1980	41 800	37 800	34 500	25 200	9 800	6 500	155 600
1981	43 700	40 500	37 000	27 100	10 900	7 000	166 200
1982	45 600	42 100	39 800	29 000	11 900	7 800	175 200
1983	47 500	44 000	41 500	31 000	13 000	8 500	185 000

* Unpublished data supplied by the Transkei Department of Education.

d. Total primary and secondary enrolment

In 1964 there were 287 734 pupils in primary and secondary schools in Transkei. Since 1969 when 399 032 pupils were enrolled, the Department of Education in Transkei extended its activities considerably and in 1978 education was provided for 681 621 pupils. If the present rate of pupil enrolment increase is maintained, there may be more than 800 000 enrolled pupils by 1983. The forecasts of pupil enrolment for the various school phases are given in Table 4.4.

TABLE 4.4 TRANSKEI - FORECASTS OF PRIMARY AND SECONDARY ENROLMENT UNTIL 1983

SCHOOL PHASE / YEAR	LOWER PRIMARY	HIGHER PRIMARY	JUNIOR SECONDARY	SENIOR SECONDARY	TOTAL
1978*	359 723	186 698	101 564	33 636	681 621
1979	370 000	192 700	107 000	37 500	707 200
1980	380 800	200 400	114 100	41 500	736 800
1981	391 600	207 500	121 200	45 000	765 300
1982	401 800	214 600	127 500	48 700	792 600
1983	412 000	222 000	133 000	52 500	819 500

* Unpublished data supplied by the Transkei Department of Education.

4.2.3 Some implications of the expected enrolment increase

a. Number of teachers, 1979-1983

It was mentioned above that the pupil enrolment in 1978 was as high as 682 621. The number of teachers who taught in primary and secondary schools in the same year, was 13 803. If the pupil-teacher ratio is calculated from to the above-mentioned figures, it means that there was an average of 49 pupils per teacher. The pupil-teacher ratio in the various school phases appear in Table 4.5.

TABLE 4.5 TRANSKEI - PUPIL-TEACHER RATIO IN THE VARIOUS SCHOOL PHASES, 1978

SCHOOL PHASE	PUPIL * ENROLMENT	NUMBER OF * TEACHERS	PUPILS PER TEACHER
Lower primary	359 723	4 533	79
Higher primary	186 698	3 979	47
Total primary	546 421	8 512	64
Junior secondary	101 564	4 115	25
Senior secondary	33 636	1 176	29
Total secondary	135 200	5 291	26
Total primary and secondary	681 621	13 803	49

* Information supplied by the Transkei Department of Education, 1978.

If the present pupil-teacher ratio is only to be maintained in the future, in other words if a lowering of the ratio is not envisaged, the number of teachers needed in every school phase until 1983, will be as indicated in Table 4.6.

TABLE 4.6 TRANSKEI - NUMBER OF TEACHERS REQUIRED IN PRIMARY AND SECONDARY PHASES, 1979-1983, ON THE BASIS OF THE PRESENT PUPIL-TEACHER RATIO.

YEAR SCHOOL PHASE AND PUPIL-TEACHER RATIO	1978*	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983
Lower primary (79:1)	4 533	4 684	4 821	4 957	5 087	5 216
Higher primary (47:1)	3 979	4 100	4 264	4 415	4 566	4 724
Primary (64:1)	8 512	8 784	9 085	9 472	9 653	9 940
Junior secondary (25:1)	4 115	4 280	4 564	4 848	5 100	5 320
Senior secondary (29:1)	1 176	1 294	1 432	1 552	1 680	1 811
Secondary (26:1)	5 291	5 574	5 996	6 400	6 780	7 131
Total: primary and secondary (49:1)	13 803	14 358	15 081	15 872	16 433	17 071

*Information supplied by the Transkei Department of Education, 1978.

From the above table it is clear that in 1983 there will have to be 3 268 more teachers in primary and secondary schools in Transkei, than in 1978 to maintain the present pupil-teacher ratio. If the pupil-teacher ratio is to be lowered, as is envisaged for the future, considerably more teachers will have to be employed. In his policy speech of 1979 the Minister of Education stated that his Department aims at lowering the primary pupil-teacher ratio to 50:1. A gradual lowering of the ratio in primary schools to 50:1 in 1983, will require that it is lowered annually by 2,8 pupils per teacher. If it is accepted that the ratio in secondary schools remains the same, the number of teachers will be as follows.

TABLE 4.7 TRANSKEI - NUMBER OF TEACHERS REQUIRED IN THE PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOL PHASES, 1979-1983, ON THE BASIS OF THE PLANNED PUPIL-TEACHER RATIO.

YEAR SCHOOL PHASE	1978*	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983
Primary (lowered by 2,8 per year)	8 512	9 195	9 953	10 776	11 674	12 680
Secondary	5 291	5 574	5 996	6 400	6 780	7 131
TOTAL	13 803	14 769	15 949	17 176	18 454	19 811

*Information for 1978 supplied by the Transkei Department of Education.

From the calculations it can be deduced that a lowering of the pupil-teacher ratio will bring about a considerable increase in the number of teachers. In order to attain the set objectives, 6 008 more teachers will have to be employed over the five years until 1983. This is 2 740 more than the 17 071 required if the present ratio is just to be maintained.

The above-mentioned considerations indicate that the future teacher supply will have to take account of the increase in pupil enrolment and that the supply of teachers will require careful planning. If the planned pupil-teacher ratio is to be attained by 1983, real efforts will have to be made to increase the annual educational expenditure.

b. Number of classrooms needed by 1983

According to information supplied by the Transkei Department of Education, there were more or less 12 497 classrooms available for all schools in 1978. This means that there was an average of 55 pupils per classroom. In order to maintain this position, the number of classrooms in primary and secondary schools will have to increase as indicated in Table 4.8, if the pupil enrolment increases as was calculated in the forecasts.

TABLE 4.8 TRANSKEI - NUMBER OF PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOL CLASSROOMS REQUIRED, 1979-1983.

YEAR CLASSROOMS	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983
Enrolment	707 200	736 800	765 300	792 600	819 500
Pupils per classroom	55	55	55	55	55
Number of classrooms	12 859	13 397	13 915	14 411	14 900
Additional classrooms	362	538	518	496	489

Source: Table 4.4

c. Projected current Government expenditure* on primary and secondary education in Transkei until 1983/84

In 1964 the current expenditure per pupil in Transkei was R14,51. In 1969 the expenditure had risen to R16,61 and in 1978 to R81,45. This represents an annual increase of 20,56 per cent since 1969.

If it is accepted that the present system of financing will continue until at least 1983/84, the estimated expenditure on primary and secondary education in Transkei could increase as indicated in Table 4.9. The following assumptions were taken into account:

- if the 1978 expenditure per pupil is maintained in real terms (an inflation rate of 10 per cent per year until 1983 is accepted);
- if the cost per pupil increases at the average rate of the past few years (since 1969), that is at about 20 per cent.

TABLE 4.9 TRANSKEI - ESTIMATED GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURE* ON PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION UNTIL 1983, BASED UPON THE EXPENDITURE PER PUPIL

		Cost per pupil		Estimated expenditure	
YEAR	PUPILS	Real expenditure of R81,45 p.a.**	Annual increase of 20%	Real expenditure of R81,45 per pupil p.a.	20% increase in expenditure per pupil
1978/79	681 621	R81,45	R81 45	R55 517 m	R55 517 m
1979/80	707 200	89,60	97,74	63 365	69 122
1980/81	736 800	98,56	117,29	72 619	86 419
1981/82	765 300	108,42	140,75	82 974	107 716
1982/83	792 600	119,26	168,90	94 525	133 870
1983/84	819 500	131,19	202,58	107 510	166 096

*These sums do not include capital expenditure for e.g. buildings.

**Calculated from Estimate of the expenditure to be defrayed from the Transkeian Revenue Fund during the year ending 31 March 1979.

In order just to maintain the present position, the Government expenditure on primary and secondary education in Transkei will have to be increased to R107 510 m in 1983/84 according to the above calculations. This represents an increase of 93,65 per cent on the budgeted expenditure of 1978/79. Accordingly the Government expenditure on primary and secondary education, based on an increase of 20 per cent annually of the per pupil expenditure, will increase to R166 096 m in 1983/84 which is an increase of 199,18 per cent on the 1978/79 amount.

4.3 NEEDS AND RECOMMENDATIONS REGARDING CERTAIN ASPECTS

4.3.1 Pre-school education

The functional area of the educational system of Transkei in the initial phase of the education of the child is limited more or less to the first year in the primary school. Few activities are undertaken with regard to the pre-school child. In cases where the necessary continuity between home education and school education exists, organised pre-school activities are not necessary. In Transkei, however, serious consideration should be given to the broadening of the functional scope of the educational system in order to include the pre-school child as well. The reasons for this viewpoint are the following:

- The cultural background and home education of the Transkeian child are not the same as those of the White child; however, for all practical purposes the same syllabi are used. Elementary education does not take account of this lag in development or developmental difference which may be attributed to social and cultural factors (see Steenekamp en Mothsekga, 1973, pp. 66-74; K-N-N Commission, 1973, p. 24).

- A large percentage of Transkeian parents are illiterate and the children do not receive sufficient intellectual stimulation before they start their schooling.The following remark by the leader of the Opposition in 1973 illustrates this point: "Let us accept as blackest fact that our homes do not provide the background and environment that assist a White child when he first goes to school. Their parents buy picture books, buy them all sorts of games in order to stimulate the minds even before the child goes to primary school" (Transkei Legislative Assembly, 1973, p. 144).

- The long periods of the father's abscence from home could also contribute towards intellectual and emotional neglect of the child (Transkei Department of Commerce, Industry and Tourism, n.d., pp. iii-iv).

Because of these factors the child is not ready for school and learning problems which may harm the rest of his school career, develop during his first school year. "Most pupils with learning problems, or most of the problems which under-achievers have with formal scholastic work started in their first year namely in Sub A. One of the possible causes is the fact that pupils are admitted to a school before they are ready for formal instruction. On first admission to school the degree of school readiness varies greatly from one child to another. This is due to the differences in pre-school experience" (Department of Education and Training, n.d., pp. 1-2). Problems regarding school readiness are aggravated because of the fact that the teachers in primary schools have poor qualifications and because of the pupil-teacher ratio which at present is as high as 79:1 in the lower primary school (see Table 4.5). Illiterate parents are unable to identify the problem in time and to render assistance at

home. The result is that the education of the child is harmed severely, and the educational system fails in its task to develop the child's potential in a planned and organised way.

Although attention should be given anew to the adaptation of the learning matter to the national character and level of development of the child, this step alone will not provide the desired solution, because of above-mentioned factors. The following recommendations may be considered. Extensive school readiness testing should be done throughout the entire country in order to determine the extent to which the problem does exist. These tests should be followed by a comprehensive school readiness project which includes the parents, teachers and training schools. Using the school readiness programme of the Human Sciences Research Council of the Republic of South Africa could be considered. The inspectorate should play a central and co-ordinating role in this project. Attention should also be given to the possibility of expanding pre-primary education. Female teachers could be trained specially for pre-primary classes.

4.3.2 Primary education

The most pressing problems which are experienced in the primary school are the following:

- problems regarding school readiness as discussed in Section 4.3.1.;
- an extremely high pupil-teacher ratio of 64:1. In lower primary schools the ratio is as high as 79:1;
- low academic and professional qualifications of teachers. In 1978 92 per cent of the teachers in primary and junior secondary schools had only a Standard eight sertificate or lower academic qualifications. (Separate figures for primary schools are not available, but it may be accepted

that more or less 100 per cent of the teachers in primary schools had such low academic qualifications);

- problems regarding the medium of instruction;

- the lower priority apparently attached to primary education in comparison with secondary education. This is apparent from the fact that the pupil-teacher ratio in primary schools is 64:1, while in secondary schools the ratio is 25:1. Government bursaries are allocated to all students who take the Junior Secondary Teachers Course, while students taking the Primary Teachers Course receive no Government bursaries. The salaries of principals and vice-principals in primary schools are substantially lower than the salaries of those in secondary schools (Transkei Department of Education, Circular No. 12/1978). Furthermore the current expenditure per pupil in 1977/78 was R35,00 for primary pupils compared to R150,00 for secondary pupils;

- the high dropout figure in the primary school (see Table 4.10). In 1973 there were 111 135 pupils in Sub A. Five years later there were only 49 905 pupils in Standard four. The latter figure does not only include Sub A pupils of 1973, but also pupils who were in Sub A before 1973 and failed (see Table 3.12 for repeaters).

- the extent of the age distribution (see Table 3.6),which causes disciplinary and teaching problems. These problems are not present in homegeneous age groups;

- other factors which inhibit primary education (see K-N-N Commission, 1973, pp. 9-48). Among these factors are the distance between children's homes

and their schools, lack of educational aids and other physical facilities, the absence of free textbooks and stationery and the fact that some pupils are not properly fed (K-N-N Commission, 1973, p. 23; see Transkei Department of Commerce, Industry and Tourism, n.d., p. iii).

If it is accepted that the purpose of the primary school is to provide universal functional literacy and to lay the foundation for further education, then the above-mentioned problems, particularly as they are manifested in high dropout and failure figures and the low standard of education (K-N-N Commission, 1973, pp. 23-24), bear sufficient evidence of the inability of the primary school to realise its purpose. The influence of this state of affairs also prevails in other educational institutions, particularly the secondary school.

In an analysis of the problems and deficiencies of the primary school and the search for solutions, the following should be taken into account. Firstly it should be pointed out that these problems are related to the variety of specific natural and cultural factors which structured the Transkei educational system in a unique manner. Secondly, some of the problems originated and still exist because of the personal ambitions and national ideals of the inhabitants of the country. Among these ideals self-determination and material prosperity hold the central position. In the third place it must be stipulated that these problems are mutually related and do not exist in isolation. Furthermore, the primary school is not separate from other educational institutions, but they are and should be intimately integrated. The implication of this is that the problems cannot be solved separately, that meaningful recommendations can only be made with complete knowledge of the factors and motives which underlie the Transkei educational system and that

proposals for the solution of the problems cannot be made without considering their influence upon the educational system as a whole. The following analysis and recommendations are made in consideration of the above four standpoints and in acknowledgement that the investigator's knowledge of the structure and motive of the Transkei educational system is incomplete.

a. High pupil-teacher ratio

The Minister of Education referred to the disadvantages of the high pupil-teacher ratio in the primary school in his 1978 and 1979 policy speeches. He mentioned that "the teacher in the primary section should not be overburdened with too many children. This is the stage where most harm can be inflicted to the child, thus jeopardising his future schooling" (Transkei Department of Education, 1979, p. 5). In order to attain the ratio of 50 pupils per teacher aimed at over five years, more or less 1 200 teachers must be trained annually (see Table 4.7). In Transkei sufficient facilities exist to train this number of teachers every year (see Table 3.20). In the light of the multiple problems in the primary school, the pupil-teacher ratio will have to be lowered even further to ensure that the purpose of primary education is attained.

It should be pointed out that the large number of pupils above the normal age is an important contributing factor to the high pupil-teacher ratio in the primary school and particularly in the junior primary school. If the pupils in the junior primary school (Sub A - Standard one) consist only of seven, eight or nine year olds, the ratio of 79:1 will decrease to 50:1.

In 1978 there were 231 206 pupils in the seven to nine year age group in Transkeian schools (see Table 3.6), compared to 4 533 teachers in ju-

nior primary schools (see Table 3.4). Furthermore it is important to point out that these 231 206 pupils represent 96 per cent of all children in the seven to nine year age group (see Table 3.6). At a population increase rate of 3 per cent per year, the number of children of seven to nine years of age will increase by 7 000 to 8 000 per year for the next five years. For these additional pupils 150 additional teachers are required annually to maintain a pupil-teacher ratio of 50:1. This exposition clearly shows that the problems of the primary school cannot be handled separately from each other. If attention is only paid to the high pupil-teacher ratio without investigating the causes and related problems, it may easily result in the training of too many teachers for primary schools.

An important question is whether those pupils of above the normal age, who attend school for the first time, should be allowed to have the freedom to impede the education of pupils who enter the school at the normal age. The above-mentioned increase of the pupil-teacher ratio leads to several problems in the classroom situation. In the large classes which sometimes accommodate more than 100 pupils in the junior primary phase (Transkei Department of Education, 1978, p. 1), little use can be made of modern teaching methods which are based upon close contact between teacher and pupil (Duminy, 1972, p. 35) and the education of the child is severely harmed. "The excessive number of pupils per teacher makes a mockery of teaching. The teacher is just baffled because he/she is called upon to do the work of two or three teachers. There is, as a result, very serious retardation in many schools" (Transkei Department of Education, 1979, p. 26). Where pupils with large age disparities are grouped together in the same class, the choice of suitable teaching methods is made very difficult, be-

cause the choice is determined amongst other things by the age of the pupils (Van der Stoep, 1968, pp. 272-289). As mentioned previously, the extensive age disparity also promotes disciplinary problems. In the light of these problems the possibility of differentiating elementary education should be investigated. Where there are more than one class in the same standard, a division according to pupil age can be made. Education outside the formal school context may even be considered for pupils older than a particular age, and special syllabi may be compiled for this purpose.

b. Low teacher qualifications

Concerning the low academic and professional qualifications of teachers, the correction should be of a dual nature. Firstly the training of existing teachers should be improved and supplemented by means of an extensive and co-ordinated in-service training programme and secondly the admission requirements and standard of full-time training of primary teachers should be raised. This aspect is discussed in more detail in Section 4.3.6.

c. Medium of instruction

After the high pupil-teacher ratio and the attending extent of age disparity, the matter of medium of instruction is the most important restrictive factor in primary education (see Section 3.1.4). The use of the mother-tongue as medium of instruction is generally accepted by educationists as a basic didactic principle (see Duminy, 1972, pp. 53-61; Cingo, 1967, p. 138; Thembela, 1974, p. 80) and this was confirmed by two commissions of inquiry into educational matters in Transkei (Cingo Commission, 1962, p. 17; K-N-N Commission, 1973, p. 25). As mentioned in the previous chapter, this is not simply an educational matter and because of various other socio-

economic, political and linguistic considerations it was decided to use English as the medium of instruction from Standard three onwards. Because of the existing teaching methods, period allocation for English, crowded classrooms, poorly qualified teachers, etc. the Standard three child is not equipped to receive meaningful education through the medium of English and his subsequent education is severely harmed (K-N-N Commission, 1973, p. 26). "He not only loses interest in his work at the most vital stage of his educational career, but abandons the struggle. If he does not throw up the sponge, he selects the obvious and pernicious alternative of memorising what he has been set to learn, regardless of whether he comprehends it or not" (Cingo, 1967, p. 142).

Consequently the education of the child is severely harmed. It is necessary to take extensive steps in order to correct this situation. Accepting the fact that there will be no change in the present policy regarding medium of instruction in the near future, the following recommendations are made:

- The teaching of English as a primary and particularly junior primary school subject, should be directed towards giving the child a thorough comprehension and power of expression of English, in order that English may be used as medium of instruction from Standard three onwards.

- Keeping this in mind, the period allocation for the teaching of English in the first four years of the primary school should be increased.

- The existing syllabi, textbooks and teaching methods will have to be revised to adapt to these changes. It is not desirable that the syllabi of the Cape Education Department are used, seeing that English as second language is not meant to provide the child with sufficient knowledge of

English to use it as medium of instruction, while the syllabus for English as first language is compiled for children whose mother-tongue is English and who therefore do not have to learn it as a second language.

- After a thorough investigation a particular course should be chosen which must be integrated in the syllabus, textbooks for pupils and teachers, teacher training and in-service training. In this regard Professor L.W. Lanham made the following recommendation: "A good deal of time seems to be wasted in training institutions in instruction which is of little practical value as far as English is concerned. Some of the time spent on language-teaching theory could profitably be diverted to learning to teach a specific course. A prescribed comprehensive course for primary school English will certainly require that teachers learn to know the course thoroughly and the methods prescribed for it" (Ackerman, 1967, p. 80). A start in this direction has already been made by the presentation of a few in-service training courses and the English Through Activity-course at some training schools. Although this particular course is not necessarily recommended for Transkei, the principles which it contains should be considered, namely that it is a complete, integrated course which also gives guidance to the teacher (Michau, 1977, p. 21).

d. The high failure and dropout rate

The high failure and dropout rate in the primary school is a manifestation of the serious basic deficiencies and problems which are experienced in the primary school. (Socio-economic problems outside the school also contribute) (K-N-N Commission, 1973, pp. 28-45; Fourie, 1978, p. 59). "Nevertheless the rate of wastage is really the measure of efficiency of any education system" (K-N-N Commission, 1973, p. 28). The then Secretary of Education

expressed his anxiety over early school leavers in his 1967 report and said that "the first four to six years in the educational life of any pupil are the most formative of all. Knowledge acquired up to this level soon fades away if the educational career is terminated too soon, and there is a consequent return to illiteracy" (Transkei Department of Education, 1967). The purpose of the primary school, namely to bring about universal literacy, is largely foiled. Table 4.10 shows that there has seemingly been a small improvement regarding early school leavers during the past ten years, but the extent of this phenomenon is still large enough to cause concern. In order to obtain a comparable figure, the number of pupils in the initial year is given as 100 and the number of remaining pupils in the following years are given as a percentage of the number of pupils in the initial year. The increase in the percentage remaining pupils since 1976 may be attributed partly to the addition of the Glen Grey and Herschel districts to Transkei in that year.

TABLE 4.10 TRANSKEI-DROPOUT RATE IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS, 1964-1978 (PUPILS WHO CONTINUE THEIR EDUCATION AS A PERCENTAGE OF THE ORIGINAL ENROLMENT IN SUB A)

STANDARD	YEAR AND PERCENTAGE REMAINING PUPILS					
	1964-1970	1966-1972	1968-1974	1970-1976	1972-1978	1974-1978
Sub A	(1964) 100	(1966) 100	(1968) 100	(1970) 100	(1972) 100	(1974) 100
Sub B	(1965) 64	(1967) 62	(1969) 66	(1971) 68	(1973) 66	(1975) 67
Std 1	(1966) 64	(1968) 58	(1970) 63	(1972) 65	(1974) 66	(1976) 70
Std 2	(1967) 51	(1969) 49	(1971) 53	(1973) 54	(1975) 56	(1977) 62
Std 3	(1968) 46	(1970) 44	(1972) 47	(1974) 50	(1976) 48	(1978) 58
Std 4	(1969) 34	(1971) 32	(1973) 36	(1975) 37	(1977) 43	
Std 5	(1970) 28	(1972) 26	(1974) 29	(1976) 33	(1978) 36	

Source: Transkei Department of Education, 1965-1977. Information for 1978 supplied by the Transkei Department of Education.

Having left the repeaters out of account it seems that over the past ten years one third of the pupils left school after one year, while more or less half of the pupils left the school within four years.

The problem of a high rate of wastage can only be solved partially by solving the other problems in the primary school which directly or indirectly influence early school leaving. Even when the causes of this problem are not under the direct control of the school (e.g. socio-economic and cultural causes) (K-N-N Commission, 1973, pp. 36-39, 48) it is still the school's duty to take note of the problem and, if possible, to make the necessary adaptations.

e. The introduction of compulsory education

The introduction of compulsory education is closely related to the problem of early school leaving. The K-N-N Commission recommended that compulsory education should be introduced gradually on a regional basis (K-N-N Commission, 1973, p. 46). Compulsory education is envisaged as an ideal, but it presupposes a form of free education and a sufficient supply of teachers and accommodation (Transkei Department of Education, 1978, p. 2). Furthermore compulsory education is generally only implemented where school attendance is already almost universal (Ruperti, 1974, p.37). It has already been pointed out that probably more than 98 per cent of the pupils in the seven to nine year age group are already attending school. Concerning the availability of teachers and accommodation, Transkei is on the face of it not in a position to implement compulsory education. The shortage is so serious that it is considered "to control admissions in Sub A in future, but this is seen as a last resort" (Transkei Department of Education, 1979, p. 26).

At closer examination it seems however that this shortage is mainly caused by the large number of pupils older than the normal age in the various standards in the primary school, as well as the large percentage of pupils who fail. The restriction which this places upon the introduction of compulsory education, serves as further motivation for considering the possibility of supplying education outside the formal school context to children older than the normal age. Some form of compulsory education for the first four years of schooling should receive serious attention.

4.3.3 Secondary education

The following are the main problems of secondary education in Transkei:

- a low standard of teaching and a high failure and dropout rate (see Transkei Department of Education, 1977, p. 16; Transkei National Assembly, 1977, p. 149);
- the possibility that in view of the increasing secondary school population the existing financial resources will be insufficient to provide in the demand for secondary education;
- inadequate provision of differentiated secondary education;
- problems in connection with the administrative and physical separation of the junior secondary school from the primary school.

The following discussion may serve as a guideline for the solution of the problems in secondary education:

a. Low standard of education

The low standard of education and the attending high failure rate may be

ascribed to various factors, of which the following are the most important:

- The foundations for secondary education were not laid thoroughly in the primary school.
- Teachers are not trained adequately for their duties.
- Facilities such as libraries, laboratories and teaching aids are poor or non-existing.
- Poor home conditions like the lack of study facilities at home and long distances from school are not conductive to educational progress.
- Syllabi are irrelevant to the interests, aptitudes and culture of the pupils and the job opportunities in the country.
- There is a lack of professional guidance from inspectors.

These problems are so comprehensive and profound that the policy-makers will have to reconsider in depth the entire position of primary and secondary education in Transkei. It should by now be obvious that merely importing the learning contents from another education department is not the solution to the problem, but is more likely to create new problems. Whereas in the past emphasis was laid on what children learned at school, there ought to be a shift of emphasis to how and wherefore children learn. The actions which were taken in the past were often unrealistic, e.g. the in-service training programmes which will have to continue for many years before all teachers will benefit, lack structure, financial resources and personnel. Another example is the buying of equipment and library facilities which remain unused because teachers are not trained in their proper use and because such equipment and facilities are not integrated in the syllabi.

The line of thought which should be taken is that of standardization and integration, by which the following are meant: for each subject the starting-point should be a good standard teacher's guide or handbook which is compiled according to the syllabus. This should indicate the order in which the work should be done as well as the allocation of time which should simplify the compilation of a scheme of work. The following aspects should be integrated in such a standard teacher's guide: assignments and practical work by pupils, testing, examination, teaching methods and the use of equipment and aids. In accordance with this, inexpensive standard equipment should be supplied to schools. The full-time and in-service training of teachers should be linked up with this guide and problems concerning the medium of instruction should be taken into consideration when such a guide is compiled. This system may be used in the primary and secondary schools alike. It has the advantage that all teachers may utilize it within a short time having been informed on the use thereof. It also facilitates control by inspectors and principals. Furthermore, several problems are solved by one comprehensive scheme. It may also be used successfully in non-formal education where pupils are dependent upon private study.

b. Demand for secondary education

In Table 4.9 the estimated educational expenditure at current trends is set at R166 million for 1983/84, which means that the educational expenditure in real terms will double in five years' time. In 1978/79 17 per cent of the national budget was already allocated to education (see Section 3.4). This situation gives rise to doubt as to whether the Government will be able, seen from the financial side, to provide in the demand for secondary education. An additional factor is the shortage of teachers in the senior secon-

dary schools, especially for Mathematics and Physical Sciences (see Section 3.5.7). However, the greatest problem is to bring secondary education and especially senior secondary education within reach of all pupils who have the ability. Only a small percentage of the population are urbanized and as a result more than 1 000 junior secondary schools had to be erected in order to bring education up to Standard seven within reach of the greatest portion of the population. This led to extremely small classes and the uneconomic utilization of equipment and teachers. The same steps cannot be taken with the senior secondary schools, as the classes would be even smaller. The only alternative is the provision of boarding facilities which would increase the capital expenditure and current costs per pupil. Before new senior secondary schools are erected a study of the population distribution will have to be made in co-operation with other departments. The ultimate goal should be an even distribution of schools throughout the country and equal opportunity in senior secondary education.

Because of the existing and expected shortage of facilities in senior secondary education a system of selection will have to be introduced. For this purpose the external Standard seven examination will have to be retained. One of the recommendations of the K-N-N Commission was to examine "the necessity for a system of selection and guidance for admission to high school courses" (K-N-N Commission, 1973, p. 7). Although much was said about guidance, no guidelines were given in the report for the selection of pupils for the senior secondary school.

c. Differentiated education

The principle of differentiated education was acknowledged and supported

by the Minister of Education in his policy speeches during 1978 (Transkei Department of Education, 1978, p. 4) and 1979 (Transkei Department of Education, 1979, pp. 1-3). There is, however, inadequate differentiated education to provide on the one hand in the diverse aptitudes, interests and abilities of the pupils and on the other hand to provide the necessary variety of manpower for the economic development of the country.

Although it is the ideal and also the policy of the Government to offer an extensive system of differentiated secondary education, there are many obstacles in the way. The large number of junior secondary schools impede the implementation of differentiation because it means a further division of the existing small classes and also because it requires great capital expenditure to provide all these schools with equipment for practical subjects. A shortage of teachers of subjects like Typing, Accountancy, Woodwork, Metalwork and Technical Drawing is also a factor which restricts differentiation in the secondary school. If only a few of the larger junior secondary schools offer practical subjects and subjects like Accountancy, Woodwork, Metalwork and Technical Drawing (as is the case at present) many pupils are prevented from starting with these subjects in Standard eight, as the Standard eight course is a continuation of the Standard six and seven courses. The limited differentiation in the junior secondary school thus affects differentiation in the senior secondary school.

Differentiation in secondary education is, however, necessary and in spite of these problems methods will have to be sought to differentiate secondary education continually and increasingly. On junior secondary level differentiation could be only exploratory and orientative. It is undesirable

and impracticable to introduce full-fledged differentiated education in all 1 142 junior secondary schools. A form of differentiation may be offered at the larger junior secondary schools. Where junior secondary schools are close to senior secondary schools or trade schools the facilities and personnel of the latter may be used for the presentation of practical courses. The possibility should also be considered that in more densely populated areas where there is a concentration of junior secondary schools and no accessible trade school, a technical centre which will serve several schools could be erected. Pupils could then visit the centre for two to three hours a week. At all the junior secondary schools where differentiation is inadequate, at least one practical subject such as Agricultural Science, Needlework or Woodwork should be offered according to the choice of the school.

From Standard eight extensive differentiation within the senior secondary schools should be provided regarding subject choice and learning contents. For this purpose larger senior secondary schools will be preferable to small secondary schools. The objective should be to offer practical subjects at all the senior secondary schools. Courses should be designed so that a pupil could start these subjects in Standard eight even if he did not take them in Standards six and seven. The existing trade schools and technical schools will have to be extended in order to take in more pupils and additional trade schools and technical schools will have to be erected in the larger centres. Furthermore, provision will have to be made for those pupils who are not academically inclined and leave school on completion of the junior secondary course.

Inherent in differentiated education is the inclusion of an efficient system of vocational guidance to provide guidance to pupils regarding their

choices. The introduction of extensive differentiated education will have to be preceded by a careful study of the matter. Other State Departments and the private sector will also have to be consulted and the manpower needs of the country will have to be duly taken into account. The employment opportunities and study opportunities in the Republic of South Africa should also be included in the consideration.

d. The situation of junior secondary schools

Of the 1 142 schools which provide junior secondary education, only 34 provide junior secondary education exclusively, while the rest, i.e. 1 108, are combined primary and junior secondary schools (see Table 3.8). The large number of small junior secondary schools did bring education up to Standard seven within reach of the greater portion of the population, but it also gave rise to many problems, due especially to the fact that the junior secondary schools were combined with primary schools. The main problems which are experienced are the following:

- The junior secondary school has goals and methods that clearly differ from those of the primary school. Under the present dispensation justice is not done to these goals and methods and the junior secondary school has not been able to develop its own identity and character.

- Control and administration is impeded and it may very easily happen that the secondary section is favoured at the expense of the primary section. The fact that an external examination is written at the end of Standard seven increases this possibility.

- Most of the teachers and principals of the former primary schools which were upgraded to junior secondary schools, have only a Junior Certificate and a Primary Teachers' Certificate. They are unable to provide

specialized subject teaching up to Standard seven and the result is a very low standard of teaching (see Transkei National Assembly, 1977, p. 149).

It was in view of these problems that the Minister of Education described the combination of junior secondary schools with primary schools as a great mistake (Transkei Department of Education, 1979, p. 25) and that a separation of these two types of schools is envisaged (Transkei National Assembly, 1977, p. 149). Such a separation is not practicable as it will result in a large number of junior secondary schools with low enrolment. In 1978 the junior secondary schools had an average of only 88 pupils (see Table 3.4). As an alternative the transfer of the Standard seven classes to nearby senior secondary schools is considered (Transkei Department of Education, 1979, p. 25).

4.3.4 Trade education and technical education

A complete report on the position of trade education in the homelands was published in 1978 (Nienaber Committee, 1978). The findings of the committee also concerns Transkei and the most important recommendations regarding the contents, duration, admission requirements and examination of trade courses have already been implemented. Positive progress has already been made by giving trade education more continuity. So for instance a person with N.T.C. III is able to continue his studies at a college for advanced technical training or to obtain a Senior Certificate through the addition of the two official languages. However, there is still a lack of continuity between trade education and the training of artisans. According to the Apprenticeship Act(Transkei Government, Act No. 10 / 1975) the training period of artisans may be reduced by six months for every completed year of

study at a recognised trade school or technical school (see Transkei Government, Notice No. 56/1976). The maximum allowable reduction is one and a half year. In the light of these allowances it would hardly be worthwhile for pupils to attend trade schools for training, seeing that the training period of a pupil attending a trade school would be longer than that of his contemporary who goes to work as an apprentice directly after leaving school (Nienaber Committee, 1978, p. 2).

One of the most important problems Transkei will have to deal with up to the end of this century, is the provision of job opportunities for a labour force which annually increases by 30 000. In the structuring of the educational system and particularly vocational education, one is confronted by two aspects of reality. Firstly it would be unrealistic to expect that by the end of this century job opportunities will have been provided for the whole labour force in Transkei and consequently a considerable number of the labourers will still be offering their services to the Republic of South Africa (see Transkei, n.d., pp. 48-49; Clark, 1979, pp. 295-296). Secondly a maximum of job opportunities will have to be created in Transkei and education, and vocational education particularly will have to be directed towards providing for the particular manpower needs of Transkei. The educational programme, therefore, will have to take account of the economic development plan without making education wholly subservient to the economy. Against this background and from this starting-point, technical and vocational education will have to be planned. Obviously other Government Departments and the private sector will have to be involved in the planning. The following recommendations are made:

- The facilities for trade and technical education at the three existing

schools will have to be expanded to accommodate more pupils. The provision of courses in commercial subjects and the technical Standard six and seven at the Umtata Technical College ought to be suspended in order to give more scope for trade education and technical education after Standard seven. Of the 512 pupils who were enrolled at this college in 1979, 398 or 78 per cent were in the commercial classes or technical Standard six or seven(See Table 3.18). Commercial subjects can and ought to be presented at the academic senior secondary schools, while a degree of differentiation in a technical direction should be introduced at the larger junior secondary schools.

Apart from the expansion of existing facilities, the possibility of erecting trade schools in the south-western part of the country (Engcobo vicinity), as well as in the north-eastern region of the country (Mount Ayliff, Flagstaff or Bizana) should also be investigated. These locations are in accordance with the proposed development strategy which is regarded as a preparation for a national development plan (Transkei, n.d., Chart No. 8). The expansion of facilities for trade education is necessary for the economic development of the country. In 1978 only one per cent of the pupils after Standard seven were enrolled for technical education at trade schools or technical schools (see Table 3.4). There is a real danger that there will be an over-supply of academically qualified people, who enter the labour market, while on the other hand there will be a shortage of technically qualified labourers.

- The number of pupils in the various fields of study should be in accordance with the economic needs of the country. This presupposes continuous collaboration with the private sector and other Government Departments.

- Collaboration and co-operation with the Republic of South Africa will still be necessary for a considerable period of time for:

  (a) the conducting of the final trade tests for artisans and external examining of the N.T.C.-courses;

  (b) the provision of trade and technical teachers;

  (c) tertiary technical training;

  (d) trade courses for which there is only a limited demand in the economy. These services are necessary to supply in the differentiated manpower needs of the country, but Transkei does not have the capital or know-how to provide it herself. As there will be only small numbers of pupils in certain courses, it will mean under-utilisation of capital and teaching staff which the country cannot afford.

- The provision of facilities for block release courses for the practical part of the examination for artisans as a preparation for the final trade test, should be strongly considered. This is necessary because many employers do not provide sufficient facilities and opportunities for the complete coverage of the practical syllabus for apprentices (Van der Merwe, personal interview, 2 May 1979).

- More complete recognition of the National Technical course by the Apprenticeship Board should be considered. The Nienaber Committee deemed it absolutely necessary that trade school training should be recognised on a year to year basis by the Apprenticeship Boards of the national states (Nienaber Committee, 1978, p. 8).

- A further deficiency arises from the fact that the minimum admission re-

quirement for trade education is Standard seven. However, a very large percentage of pupils (more than 70 per cent) (see Table 3.11) leave the school before Standard seven and this means that there is no opportunity for practical training for the largest portion of the country's children. Many of these early school leavers are not academically inclined and leave school particularly for that reason. The lowering of admission requirements for trade education cannot be advocated. However, consideration will have to be given to the introduction of some form of practical education to make provision for the large number of early school leavers who are excluded from trade education. The fact that the early school leavers are spread out over the country, and are not concentrated in a few large centres, will cause many practical problems. The co-operation of other Government Departments, the private sector and local communities will have to be considered for the provision of practical education and training, possibly on an informal basis and outside the existing school context. If an educational system can be devised on this basis, it can be directly linked to the economic development of the country.

- Technical centres in urban areas which are not connected to existing schools should be considered for voluntary technical training to supplement the academic training of junior secondary schools.

4.3.5 Special education

The Transkeian primary education is differentiated only with regard to special education. However, this differentiation is insufficient because no provision is made for the child who is mentally retarded or mentally handicapped or for the child with learning problems. Furthermore, the facilities which do exist for the deaf, the blind and physically handicapped are also insufficient in comparison to the demand. At the Efata school for the Deaf and the Blind for instance there is a waiting list of five years (Van der Poel, personal interview, 14 March 1979).

Although there is an obvious need for expansion of special education, this position will not be improved in the near future, seeing that other needs will have preference. Expansion may be attained if the Government gives its full support to church organisations which are prepared to supply facilities and staff for special education.

The existing ties with the Department of Education and Training of the Republic of South Africa will have to be maintained to ensure expert guidance and advice. The use of training facilities in the Republic of South Africa for teachers of special education will also have to be continued.

In planning the curriculum for the training of these teachers due consideration will have to be given to the fact that separate facilities for the child with learning problems and the mentally retarded or mentally handicapped child do not exist. Teachers will have to be trained to educate these children within the ordinary school. Many of these children, however, leave school before completing the primary course. A recommendation in this respect was made in a previous section.

4.3.6 Provision of teachers

The future policy regarding the training of teachers will to a large extent be determined by the following factors:

- the growth rate and expected growth rate in the primary and secondary school because of the population increase and the increasing social demand for education;

- greater demands which will be made of the school to provide differentiated education, on the one hand in order to make provision for pupil differences

and on the other hand to supply the diversified manpower which is necessary for the development of the country;

- the dynamic nature of the school curricula and learning contents, to which teacher training will have to be adapted continuously - particularly regarding general and subject didactics;

- the particular cultural background and home circumstances of the Transkeian child and the special circumstances in the Transkeian school.

An analysis of the educational situation in Transkei shows that there are several problems and deficiencies in the existing system of teacher training and that the present policy and structure will have to be revised. Apart from the above-mentioned factors which will have to be taken into account in such a revision, it is also necessary beforehand to make an analysis of the deficiencies in the existing set-up. Some of these deficiencies are the following:

- There are not sufficient facilities to make it possible to supply in the need for teachers of high quality in the primary and particularly in the secondary schools. As proof may be mentioned the high pupil-teacher ratio in the primary school, the low academic qualifications of teachers, and the serious shortage of teachers in particular subjects such as Mathematics and Physical Science. These factors make it necessary to consider the possibility of presenting these subjects at a few senior secondary schools only.

- The admission requirements for, and the duration, contents and standard of the existing courses for teacher training have resulted in the present

teachers not being sufficiently equipped for the work which is expected from them.

- The existing courses for the Primary and Junior Secondary Teacher's Certificate do not provide for continuity in further study.

- There is a lack of sufficient linkage between the curricula for the training of teachers and the school curricula.

- The existence of a large number of training schools (in total there are nine) leads to the uneconomic utilisation of facilities and staff.

- The training schools are not capable of obtaining and retaining the services of well qualified and efficient staff, seeing that the salaries of teachers at training schools are the same as those of teachers at ordinary schools.

The following possibilities may be considered in order to overcome the present shortage of qualified teachers:

- The admission requirement for the training of primary teachers must be raised to a Senior Certificate. Students must be selected and departmental bursaries equal to the bursaries for the junior secondary teacher's course (about R250 per year) should be made available to all student teachers, as soon as the necessary funds are available. This will ensure that the students are admitted according to merit and not according to the financial means of the student.

  In the past the raising of the admission requirements to a Senior Certificate was not possible, because there were too few candidates who would meet this requirement. In 1963, for example, there were only 79 candidates who

acquired the Senior Certificate or Matriculation Certificate, while the number of successful candidates in 1968 was 186 (Transkei Department of Education, 1968, p. 21). In 1978, however, 2 408 candidates passed the examination for the Senior Certificate (information supplied by the Transkei Department of Education). A raising of the admission requirement is usually linked to the development of a nation and its educational system (Ruperti, 1974, p. 90).

- The fact that the subject matter and teaching methods are constantly changing and developing, together with the raising of the admission requirement will inevitably mean a revision of the existing teacher training courses.

- In making such a revision consideration should be given to the possible lengthening of the duration of the course from two to three years as well as to the possibility that credit for further study at a university be given. This would mean that the university would play a leading role in the compilation of syllabi and the determination of standards.

- The structure of teacher training should be sufficiently differentiated to correspond with differentiation in school education. Where small numbers make this differentiation uneconomical and unpractical, for example in the case of teachers of special education and technical education, use will have to be made of facilities in the Republic of South Africa.

- In order to ensure that teacher training is handled by efficient and well qualified teaching personnel the salaries of teaching personnel at training schools will have to be substantially higher than those of teachers.

- The existing number of nine training schools will have to be reduced in order to acquire a more economical utilisation of facilities and staff.

- For several practical reasons, the training of teachers for the primary and junior secondary schools will have to be handled by training colleges. The training of other teachers should be the responsibility of the university. As mentioned above, close co-operation between the various training institutions is an absolute prerequisite.

- Several factors are making a well planned system of in-service training of teachers an urgent necessity, for instance the inadequate qualifications of teachers, the poor standard of teaching, the fact that teachers have to present subjects on a level for which they are not qualified, changes and innovations in subject matter and teaching methods. Provision has already been made for a centre for in-service training with a permanent staff (Transkei Department of Education, 1978, p. 3; 1979, p. 10). Provision will also have to be made for transport and accommodation of those attending courses. Special attention will have to be given to the acquisition of the services of capable staff. The in-service training programme will have to contain much more than a few short courses at the centre. An extensive follow-up programme in which all the subject inspectors and circuit inspectors are involved, is necessary. In such a programme printed material such as teaching guides should play an important role. It is necessary that inspectors should be involved in in-service training because they are the people who are aware of the actual problems and needs in the classroom. They are also in a position to evaluate the success of in-service training directly and to assess whether in-service training is having results in the classroom. The in-

volvement of inspectors with in-service training holds the additional advantage that innovation in subject matter and teaching methods can be implemented over the whole country within a short period of time. This suggestion implies, amongst other things, a shift of emphasis in the function of the inspector from controller to director and advisor.

4.3.7 University training

Regarding university training only a few remarks will be made. According to Lyons attention should be given to the following two aspects when evaluating university training:

- "we have to consider whether expenditure on university education represents, in volume and in structure, a reasonably balanced part of national effort, or whether there is not a tendency to exaggerate higher studies at the expense of intermediate post-secondary and secondary technical and junior teacher training" (Lyons, 1974, p. 11);
- "we should look at national manpower needs and employment opportunities and see that the volume of university study does not outweigh the national possibilities to employ graduates" (Lyons, 1974, p. 11).

Regarding the need for manpower, grave problems have been experienced in connection with the courses which have been presented at the University of Transkei up to the present day. In 1978 more than 70 per cent of the 475 students took courses in Philosophy and Arts and Commerce and Administration (see Table 3.21). The study fields which are more directed towards development and for which there is an urgent need in the economic development of the country, like agriculture, engineering, regional and urban planning, etc., will not be introduced in the near future because of

the fact that they are expensive courses and because of the lack of funds.

The forecasted cost of the first building phase of the University of Transkei is R26 million. The real cost will probably be even higher (Transkei Department of Education, 1979, p. 44). Further expansions will have to be limited because of a lack of funds (Transkei Department of Education, 1979, p. 44). In 1978/79 the budget for university training amounted to R7 845 200 of which R1 095 100 was allocated for current expenditure (Transkei, 1978, p. 26). The total university budget represents 14 per cent of the total educational budget for 1978/79.

The role of the university in the development of Transkei will have to be analysed carefully and the future growth and development of the university will have to be based upon this analysis. Especially with regard to fields of study, a balance will have to be found between the social demand and the manpower requirements of the country in order to prevent an oversupply of particularly trained people in one field while, at the same time, a lack of such trained manpower in other essential fields is experienced. This may for instance be accomplished by the selective allocation of bursaries and the limiting of enrolments in the fields of study in which the manpower need is not very urgent (Poignant, 1967, p. 49). In the future planning of university courses special attention should be given to the need for teachers, particularly for the secondary school. Teacher training should always be an important function of the university.

4.3.8 Non-formal education

The motivation for a programme of non-formal education which includes adult education and the policy of the Government to accept responsibility for it,

were discussed in the previous chapter (see Section 3.12). The following deficiencies exist in the present system of this type of education:

- Non-formal education is insufficiently provided in order to render a solution for the problem of illiteracy. The number of more or less 1 000 adults who visit the schools for basic literacy training annually, is less than the annual addition to the ranks of illiterate adults.

- Having completed the basic literacy course, the adults have no facilities for continuing their education in order to obtain a recognised higher qualification or for training for a profession.

- No provision has been made for the large percentage of early school leavers. The trade courses are also inaccessible to them because the minimum admission requirement for these courses is Standard seven or eight.

In order to correct these deficiencies the following recommendations may be considered:

- After thorough research and a needs assessment, the Department of Education will have to devise a complete and co-ordinated programme or system of non-formal education, which will include adult education. Such a system should be developed in collaboration with and with the co-operation of other Government Departments and the private sector. Furthermore, it should be integrated with the existing school system and the economy of the country.

- A course in the didactics of adult education may be introduced at training schools. Graduates may then present adult education courses in the

existing school buildings after normal school hours.

- In addition to the basic literacy course, non-formal education will also have to provide for continuation courses, vocational education for semi-skilled people and early school leavers, as well as industrial training.

- The possibility of providing secondary and particularly senior secondary education by means of distance education, will have to be investigated. The role of the Department of Education and private correspondence schools in the administration and management of distance education will have to be assessed.

- The cost factor should be carefully considered. The facilities and staff of the existing formal educational system should be used as far as possible. Part of the costs should be recovered from the private sector. This sector may, for example, take on the responsibility for the practical part of trade and industrial education.

- Non-formal education should not be planned separately and in isolation from the rest of the educational system. It should partly be directed towards combating the problems within the existing educational system.

If non-formal education is approached with these considerations in mind the funds which are allocated for it will be regarded as an investment which will benefit the rest of the full-time formal education.

4.3.9 Educational goals and policy

The preceding analysis of the educational system of Transkei has brought to light various problems, deficiencies and needs. These shortcomings can be eradicated neither simultaneously nor entirely. Of necessity choices will

have to be made and priorities established with due consideration to the existing educational situation, the needs of the community and the financial means available. These choices and priorities should be described in terms of clearly formulated educational goals for the educational system as a whole. The next step involves the definition of a detailed and complete educational policy which should be followed to achieve these proposed goals.

Expenditure on education together with the organisation, administration and control of education must be in accordance with the set policy and envisaged goals. In view of the fact that the proposed comprehensive goals and policy involve the entire educational system, provision will have to be made for co-ordination among the various departments and sections of the system. A form of continuous evaluation must form a permanent part of the system to determine to what extent goals have been achieved so that timely rectification can be effected. The inspectorate and the Department for Educational Statistics will necessarily play an important part in this connection.

The suggested educational goals and policy must be incorporated in an all-embracing five to ten year plan for the development of education. A venture of this nature should not lose sight of the need for socio-economic development and should therefore be in accordance with the national plan of development.

Various problems currently experienced in the Transkeian educational system may be traced to the lack of a clear-cut educational policy and goals. This has inter alia led to the change or adaptation of one facet or subdivision in the educational system without due regard to the resultant effect on the

system as a whole. The extension of facilities for junior secondary education may be quoted by way of illustration. This change, as previously indicated, has exerted an influence (largely detrimental) on several other divisions of the system for example primary education, senior secondary education and the training of teachers.

4.4 SUMMARY

The manifold problems which the Transkeian educational system is at present experiencing give rise to the supposition that the educational system has difficulty in attaining its primary goal, namely to guide the child in a planned and organised way to adulthood and to make the world accessible to the child. Apart from this, secondary or subordinate aims such as the promotion of a positive attitude towards community development and the supply of trained manpower needed for economic development are also not achieved and consequently the socio-economic development of the country is seriously retarded. Since the various problems in the system are mutually very closely related, tinkering or isolated revision of certain aspects will inevitably lead to further problems.

Notwithstanding the fact that educational problems in Transkei correspond with those in other developing countries, methods successfully employed in these countries will not necessarily meet with the same success in Tanskei, because the particular local conditions in Transkei differ substantially from other countries.

In the following chapter certain core suggestions on fundamental aspects are put forward.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUDING REMARKS AND CORE SUGGESTIONS

5.1 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The educational system of Transkei mainly originated through contact with the more developed Whites. The development of the organised educational system was therefore to a great extent influenced by the ground motives and cultural and spiritual forces of the Whites. For these and other reasons the present educational system does not link up with home education, community education and the socio-economic development of Transkei.

In the absence of a clearly defined educational policy and specific, clear educational goals, some decisions have been made with regard to various aspects without due consideration to their effect on the educational system as a whole and the system's interrelationship with other social structures. In this study an attempt has been made to give a complete description of the educational system of Transkei and to expose the most significant problems. The nature and extent of these problems are such that a complete revision of the present educational system as a whole is essential. This revision should devote due consideration to the particular local circumstances, the ideals of the people, and the involvement of education in the development of the

country and it must be preceded by the formulation of specific educational goals and a comprehensive educational policy. Matters which should receive attention in such a revision are listed below.

5.2 CORE SUGGESTIONS

5.2.1 Pre-school education

- Provision should be made in larger towns for more day-care centres for children of pre-school age and teachers or supervisors should receive special training for this task.
- In view of limited financial means and urgent educational needs it is not advisable at this stage that extensive facilities for pre-primary education be provided, but it should certainly be considered in future.
- Parents should be informed by the inspectorate, the Department of Adult Education, by women's associations and mass communication media with regard to the importance of school readiness and their responsibility in this respect.

5.2.2 Primary education

- The problem of school readiness should be investigated and existing tests for school readiness should be used or new ones be drawn up.
- Immediate steps should be taken to introduce compulsory free education. Initially it should be introduced in a few urban areas by way of trial.

In the first year compulsory education could be introduced for all six year old children, the next year for all seven year olds, until after six years compulsory education embraces all pupils of primary school age.

- A few smaller primary schools, possibly with combined classes, should be established to bring primary schools within walking-distance for all pupils.
- In several schools where tuition is offered up to Standard two only, the facilities should be extended in order to accommodate pupils up to Standard four.
- A maximum age for admission to the first school year should be laid down and a maximum age for pupils attending any standard in the primary school should also be considered.
- In the larger primary schools where there are more than one class per standard and where there exists a wide age disparity it would be advisable to arrange the division of classes according to age groups.
- The number of teachers required should be carefully planned and over a period of five years the ratio should be gradually reduced to a maximum of 50 pupils per teacher. The long term policy should be to lower the ratio to 35 pupils per teacher.
- A specialised teacher training course for junior primary education (Sub A - Standard one) should be offered at teacher training colleges.

- A reformed curriculum is essential in which inter alia the content, aim and presentation of English is completely revised, the cultural background and school readiness of the child are considered and which offers more practically orientated courses.
- The teaching of the primary school curricula should be made more practical. A concrete and practical approach should replace the existing verbal-abstract approach.

5.2.3 Secondary education

- Where the number of pupils justify the step, junior secondary schools should be separated both physically and administratively from primary schools.
- A form of differentiated education which is mainly exploratory and orientative should be introduced at all junior secondary schools. In this connection special consideration should be given to the inclusion of examinable practical subjects such as Typing, Agricultural Science, Home Economics or Handicraft in the curriculum. All pupils should take at least one of these practical subjects.
- Completely differentiated education ought to be presented at senior secondary level. It should be possible for pupils to start certain subjects like Typing, Accounting and technical subjects in Standard eight. The senior secondary phase should include as many practical and vocationally orientated subjects as possible.

- To make provision for this differentiation larger senior secondary schools would be preferable and this would give rise to the need for more hostel facilities.
- An effective school guidance service is a prerequisite for the efficient running of differentiated secondary education. This service must include aptitude tests.
- The limited facilities in senior secondary schools call for an objective selection of pupils at the end of the junior secondary phase, and for this reason the external Standard seven examination should be retained.
- The erection of new senior secondary schools require careful planning in collaboration with other Government Departments so that the maximum number of pupils may be served.
- All junior and senior secondary schools should be provided with inexpensive, standard equipment which is integrated with the curriculum.
- The curriculum of the secondary school should be more than a series of school subjects. It should be organised in such a way as to serve the human development of the pupils in general, giving them confidence in life and developing their skills and abilities. Because of the important role of school libraries in this respect, secondary schools should as far as possible be provided with libraries.

5.2.4 Vocational and technical education.

- Vocational and technical education should be offered to a larger

proportion of pupils through the extension of facilities in existing institutions and the erection of two additional vocational and technical schools.

- The technical Standard six and seven courses as well as the commercial courses offered by the Umtata Technical College should be abolished. The latter should be offered at various senior secondary schools, while the specialised technical courses should commence after Standard seven. If these courses are abolished more students can be accommodated in the technical and vocational courses.
- The extension and development of vocational and technical education should be carefully planned and comply with the manpower needs of the country. Collaboration and liaison with the private sector and the central Transkei Planning Board is therefore essential.
- For advanced or tertiary technical training as well as other technical courses for which there is not a large demand the educational facilities of the Republic of South Africa should be used.
- In the foreseeable future the final trade tests for artisans will still have to be conducted in the Republic of South Africa.
- The Apprenticeship Board should allow fuller recognition to the national technical courses.
- Block release courses in practical work for apprentices should be offered in Umtata and Butterworth, and later in other larger centres.

5.2.5 Teacher training

- The minimum requirement for admission for all teacher training courses should be raised without delay to Senior Certificate level.
- Consideration should be given to the extension of the minimum period of training from the existing two years to three years.
- Revision of the structure and content of the present curriculum for primary and junior secondary teachers' training courses is necessary.
- Intending students should be subject to selection and study bursaries should be made available to all students to ensure that competent staff are attracted to the teaching profession.
- The existing nine teacher training colleges should be reduced to three or four to ensure the economical use of staff and facilities.
- The University of Transkei should play a leading role in the training of senior secondary teachers.
- The training of primary school teachers and junior secondary (Standard five to seven) teachers may be undertaken at colleges of the Education Department. The training of senior secondary school teachers should, however, be the responsibility of universities.
- More provision must be made for differentiation in the training of teachers to correspond with the increasing differentiated needs in schools.
- The salaries of teachers at training schools should be substantially increased in order to gain and retain suitable lecturing staff.
- Provision should be made for students to continue their studies after the basic two or three year teacher training course. Recognition

should be granted to students for courses successfully completed when they continue their studies at a university.

- Particular attention should paid to the training of teachers in certain "key" subjects for which there is an acute shortage of teachers and which currently give rise to many problems, for example English, Mathematics and Physical Science.
- With regard to the training of students for teaching English in the primary school, the possibility of training teachers to present a specific course or courses should be considered.
- Use will still have to be made of teacher training facilities in the Republic of South Africa in those cases where only a few teachers in certain specialised fields are required.
- A comprehensive system for in-service training is essential. This must include short courses as well as correspondence courses in which printed matter will play a significant role and which will directly involve the inspectorate.

5.2.6 University education

- The role of the university in the development of the country should be investigated and clearly defined. Future developments should be deduced from these findings.
- Enrolment should be curtailed in those courses of study for the graduates of which no urgent need is experienced for the development of the country.
- Selective awarding of bursaries must be made in order to provide in the particular manpower needs of the country.
- The university will have to play an important part in the training

of teachers and particularly of senior secondary school teachers.

5.2.7 Non-formal education.

- An urgent need exists for a complete programme of non-formal education, which should form an integral part of the educational system.
- The allocation of funds for non-formal education should be considerably augmented in order to make a noteworthy contribution to the eradication of illiteracy and to provide for the large number of early school leavers and students of above normal age for formal schooling.
- Apart from the expansion of existing courses in basic literacy and numeracy, provision should be made for further study which should include practical courses. In the latter courses both the private sector and other Government Departments should be involved.

5.2.8 General

- A comprehensive national educational policy must be formulated as soon as possible on the highest level. In order to integrate this policy with the development of the country, liaison between the Transkei Education Advisory Council and the Transkei Planning Board is essential.
- About various aspects of the educational system there exists only superficial knowledge. This deficiencycalls for urgent research work before changes which are pedagogically accountable can be made.
- The recommendations made in this chapter encompass the entire educational system and thus co-ordination will be a key element of the

proposed restructuring of the system. This co-ordination must exist in the internal structure of the educational system and also between the educational system and other social structures with which it is interrelated. To achieve this end an efficient administration which includes the provision of reliable and up to date statistics is essential.

The success of the implementation of the recommendations will from beginning to end depend on the competence of the professional and administrative staff. It is therefore essential that the entire staff be fully informed about changes and their individual task and responsibility in this connection. Where necessary training courses should be provided - in particular for senior personnel including the educational planners.

In conclusion it may be stated that the current problems in the Transkei educational system originated from various natural and cultural determining factors and spiritual driving forces which are unique to the country. The problems are so extensive and serious that the educational system largely fails in reaching its primary goal of the planned and accelerated development of the child. The educational system is totally involved with the Transkeian society of which it forms part and the failure or success of the system will affect the development of the country in all spheres. This clearly spells out the need for an efficient system of educational planning which will co-ordinate education with the socio-economic development of the country. Because of the dynamic nature of the educational system it stands to reason that educational planning will be a continuous process which will depend on further research findings.

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